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ABSTRACT

This research attempted to identify relationships that exist between linguistic factors and some nonlinguistic variables. Twenty principals provided 60 taped conversations with teachers and responded to questionnaires designed to elicit selected demographic data and measures of interpersonal needs along the dimensions of the Schutz FIRO-B instrument. Teachers provided their perceptions of administrative performance by responding to Halpin's Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). Content analysis, using the General Inquirer system, identified several language usage patterns, and cluster analysis identified subgroups of principals with similar demographic configurations. Language usage patterns correlated highly with the LBDQ dimensions Initiating Structure and Consideration and with two of the FIRO-B dimensions -- Inclusion Wanted and Control Wanted. Demographic clusters correlated with verbal patterns. (RA)

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Lena L. Lucietto

University of Chicago
Chicago, Illinois

December, 1969

The research reported herein was performed pursuant to a grant from the Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Contractors undertaking such projects under Government sponsorship are encouraged to express freely their professional judgment in the conduct of the project. Points of view or opinions stated do not, therefore, necessarily represent official Office of Education position or policy.

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This work is affectionately dedicated to my parents.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

If one were to list the essential elements of the administrative task, one would have to rank high on the list of priorities the necessity for effective interpersonal communication, for while language permeates virtually all human affairs, it is central to carrying out the functions of administration. Yet, systematic concern with linguistic behavior as it relates to administrative performance is of very recent origin. In fact, little has been done to analyze the spoken language of a group of administrators or to determine whether or not a relationship does exist between spoken language and administrative performance.

As is revealed in the following chapter, administrative performance is a complex phenomenon, and there are many variables which contribute toward its complexity. Administrative performance has been studied as it relates to many of these contributing variables, for example, effectiveness, leadership style, satisfaction, and organizational change. An examination of how administrators use language in the discharge of their administrative duties warrants inclusion among variables to be studied because language is a pivotal medium of administrative interaction. We would expect relationships between verbal and nonverbal phenomena and this would seem to be argument enough to begin to acquire some knowledge of how spoken language operates in the administrative situation.

Other arguments spring from language itself. As an object of study, verbal behavior has many useful characteristics: It is usually easily observed, there has never been any shortage of material, and it can be gathered and analyzed in a systematic, efficient, and comprehensive fashion that is often impossible for other forms of natural behavior.[1]

The proposed study is related, conceptually, to the body of psychological, linguistic, and educational theory and research which recognizes that linguistic phenomena are an essential part of the data to be considered in the analysis of problems involving human behavior.[2] It seems too obvious to state that no other human activity gives the same sort of insight into another person as does his verbal behavior.

Statement of the Problem

The intent of this study is to explore the area of administrative performance and linguistic behavior, as exhibited by a sample of school principals. It is directed toward discovering the implications of differences in language patterns as used by different groups of principals. More specifically, the purpose of this study is to utilize a set of language categories, in identifying relationships which exist between the verbal behavior of principals and other nonverbal measures of their administrative performance.

The basic theoretical viewpoint involved in this study is that there is a relationship between the language usage of school administrators and the intensity of certain variables observed in their nonverbal behavior. From this general thesis, certain questions present themselves for empirical investigation:

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[1] B. F. Skinner, "A Functional Analysis of Verbal Behavior," in Psycholinguistics, ed. by Sol Saporta (New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1961), p. 70.

[2] Ibid.

(1) whether (and if so, the degree to which) the principal's language is related to teachers' perceptions of his administrative behavior

(2) whether (and if so, the degree to which) the principal's language is related to certain measures of his interpersonal needs

(3) whether significant relationships exist between verbal behavior and selected personal history variables.

These questions will provide the framework for developing the central hypotheses of this study.

Reasons for Analyzing Spoken Language

Spoken language, the primary form of language, was chosen for analysis in the study. As a derived and secondary form, written language is more deliberate. Written language has a special relationship to spoken language in that it depends largely on the prior existence of spoken language. Other differences between spoken and written language are obvious enough.

The Sample

Because of the evident differences between the speech of men and women, it was decided to control for sex in the selection of the sample by restricting the investigation to an analysis of the spoken language of men. Geographical location of school community and grade level were also controlled. Twenty male elementary school principals were selected from schools located in the greater Chicago suburban area.

The Verbal Data Base

The verbal data base is composed of 60 segments of principals' conversations taken from tape recordings of principal-teacher dialogues which took place between each of the 20 principals and three of their teachers, selected at random.

Research Related to the Problem

Application of Language Analysis to the Field of Educational Administration

Even though the investigation of the language of administrators implies the possibility of direct insight into the administrator's behavior, rather than through the perceptions of his various reference groups, there has been little sensitivity shown to the importance of language in the interactions of administrators. Almost none of the standard texts on educational administration mentions the subject. One recently published text devotes only one page to the topic, and this within the specific context of "language and theory."[1]

Andrew W. Halpin alone seems to stand out in a recurring plea for the importance of language to the administrative task. In Part Three (Words and Actions) of his recent volume Theory and Research in Administration, he recapitulates some of his earlier notions concerning the broader terrain of communication, taking into account both verbal and nonverbal language systems.[2]

Some studies involving the written language of elementary school principals evolved from the "Development of Criteria of Success" project, and utilized data which were collected in the writing sample submitted by the principals participating in the study.[1] Marcella Miller and Alan Dayley were two researchers who utilized these written materials. Marcella Miller[2] described the written language abilities of the principals in terms of several quantitative measures of language. Although she determined several significant relationships among some of the quantitative measures, she found no relationships between language indices and biographical variables. She did find that correct language usage was related directly to success as a principal.

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[1] Jacob W. Getzels, James M. Lipham, and Roald F. Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process, Theory, Research, Practice (New York: Harper & Row, 1968), p. 18.

[2] Andrew W. Halpin, "The Eloquence of Behavior," Theory and Research in Administration (New York: Macmillan, 1966), pp. 253-79.

Alan Dayley[3] tested the hypothesis that significant relationships exist between test scores of verbal knowledge and the written language indices derived from an analysis of the principals' written compositions, and between test scores of fluencies and the written language indices. Eleven of 30 possible correlations were found to be significant.

While both studies are limited in scope, they do indicate that the two written samples used are fruitful sources for information.

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[1] John K. Hemphill, Daniel E. Griffiths, and Norman Fredericksen, Administrative Performance and Personality (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962). This project on effectiveness criteria for elementary school principals has developed important techniques for evaluating principals.

[2] Marcella M. Miller, "A Psychological Analysis of Written Compositions of Elementary-School Principals" (unpublished Master's thesis, Dept. of Educational Psychology, University of Utah, 1961).

[3] Alan J. Dayley, "The Relationship between Test Scores on Vocabulary and Fluency and Language Indices Based upon Written Compositions" (unpublished Master's thesis, Dept. of Education, University of Utah, 1961).

Another study is worthy of note in the context of administrative performance. Philip Benevento[1] investigated the relation of leadership of administrators in formal organizations to their effectiveness in communicating to their staffs. He collected objective measurements of the administrators' leadership and their administrative communication to their staff members, then correlated the two measurements. Benevento hypothesized that there would be significant correlation between staff perceptions of a principal's Initiating Structure and institutional communication, and that there would be significant correlation between staff perceptions of a principal's Consideration and personal communication.[2] Consonance and reception scores were obtained from questionnaires administered to both teachers and principals concerning four areas of school operations.

One other study is worthy of note in this context. Dean Wiley recently compared the literary styles of two leaders in education, Roald F. Campbell and Paul Mort, focusing his analysis on two textbooks in educational administration, one authored by each of the two men.[3]

Applications of Language Analysis to the Field of Education

Within the wider perspective of the educational field in general, researchers have maintained a lively interest in the relationship between linguistic behavior and education. In fact, developments here parallel more closely the abundance of language-related studies which conjoin language and other areas of human inquiry. Investigations have been made into the language of the classroom, and much is currently being written about the importance of language and communication in the interaction of teachers and pupils. The 1970 Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, for example, will be devoted to language in the classroom and will be under the general editorship of an eminent linguist.[1]

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[1] Philip Benevento, "Administrative Communication: A Study of its Relationship to Administrative Leadership" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Dept. of Educational Administration, Syracuse University, 1956).

[2] Initiating Structure and Consideration are two dimensions of Halpin's Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire. They are discussed in Chapter II of this study.

[3] Dean Wiley, "Transcendentalism and Empiricism in the Intellectual History of Modern American Education: A Descriptive Analysis of the Style of Two Textbooks in Educational Administration" (unpublished paper, Graduate School, Claremont College, 1966).

John Kean has been involved in systematic research into the oral classroom language of elementary school teachers. The major objective of his recent study was the "dimensioning" of teachers' spoken language according to its structure and then comparing the structure among teachers at two different grade levels. Categories selected for the description included a vocabulary diversification index, and the structural patterns used in main clauses.[2]

Other recent studies have been concerned with the importance of language in delineating personality, attitudes, and socialization. Emil Haller's recent research concerns the nature of the socialization process as it affects novice teachers. He studied the relationship between occupational role and an individual's speech patterns, using speech as a dependent variable indicative of the extent and manner of occupational socialization. He tentatively concluded that the complexity of teachers' speech in their adult interactions is influenced by the elementary school teacher's role. He concluded that such effects are most probably found in the modes of syntax of speech, rather than in the vocabulary used. By inference, these effects support a conceptualization of occupational socialization in which children play a role in shaping the behavior of their teachers.[1]

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[1] Albert H. Marckwardt, general editor. *Linguistics in School Programs*, Sixth-ninth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, forthcoming 1970).

[2] John M. Kean, "Methodology in Studying Teachers' Classroom Language," *Educational Leadership*, XXVI, No. 1 (October, 1968), 97-105.

Two recent studies have focused on the written language of high school students. Bruce Choppin[2] made a psychological analysis of the linguistic behavior of students from the University of Chicago High School. Robert Rippey[3] utilized computerized content analysis techniques to examine the language of a sample of anonymous essays about pressures drawn from a population of essays written by junior-class students from three Chicago suburban high schools. Significantly discriminating language differences were found among students classified by ability, sex, and type of school. Rippey was able to detect a wide range of pressures affecting students in each of the groups.

Another recent study which utilized a computerized content analysis program to examine language was Albritton's "The Re-Education of Teachers."

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[1] Emil Haller, "Teacher Socialization" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Dept. of Education, University of Chicago, 1966).

[2] Bruce H. L. Choppin, "The Psychological Analysis of Verbal Behavior" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Dept. of Education, University of Chicago, 1967).

[3] Robert M. Rippey, "The Analysis of Written Language about Problems and Pressures," The School Review, LXXVI (December, 1968), 379-95.

Albritton attempted a linguistic evaluation of the Harvard-Boston Summer Program for Teachers utilizing a dictionary of categories oriented toward handling texts which are informal in mode of presentation, and which represent high, middle, and low socioeconomic styles of language expression. The data which he analyzed came from responses to open-ended questions and tapes from meetings of teacher training groups.[1]

Importance of the Problem

The selection and training of educational administrators continue to pose perplexing theoretical as well as practical problems. Many of these have to do with communication and the ways in which administrators use words.

Practical Applications

This inquiry is expected to provide empirical evidence which will help to clarify present knowledge concerning possible relationships between language usage and the life history and personality characteristics of the administrator. It has potential for providing insight concerning the advisability of relying on the perceptions of professional staff members regarding a principal's behavior. There is likelihood that what applies to principals might apply to administrators in any professional field.

Contributions to Theory

Finding an effective methodology for the analysis of the content of principal's language has implications for its application to the analysis of verbal behavior in a number of educational situations. If the aims of this study are achieved and new empirical evidence is yielded concerning the phenomenon of administrative performance, this methodology could be generalized for use in analyzing verbal data from administrative situations outside the educational subculture.

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[1] Robert E. Albritton, "The Re-Education of Teachers" (unpublished Ed.D qualifying paper, Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1966).

Limitations of the Study

There are other media of communication between superordinates and subordinates in an organization. These are of a nonverbal nature and are beyond the scope of the present treatment. It is recognized, for example, that the systems of gestures and facial expressions that ordinarily accompany speech behavior are also important systems which play a part in administrative communication.[1]

Also omitted from this study will be the styles of culturally conditioned behavior called the "silent language" by the anthropolgist Edward T. Hall,[2] and the language of visual symbols described by Ruesch and Kees.[3]

The various phases of this investigation will be reported as follows. After a review of the literature and a presentation of the theoretical background, the hypotheses orienting the research will be presented. The chapter on methodology and research design is divided into two sections, with separate sections devoted to the various stages of the research. The in-depth verbal analysis will follow the presentation of statistical findings. We will conclude with a final chapter which reports findings and indications.

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[1] See for example, Joost A. M. Meerloo, Unobtrusive Communication. Essays in Psycholinguistics (Assen, The Netherlands: Van Gorcult Ltd., 1964), pp. 50-51.; James M. Lipham and Donald C. Francke, "Non-verbal Behavior of Administrators," Educational Administration Quarterly, II (Spring, 1966), 101-09.

[2] Edward T. Hall, The Silent Language (New York: Doubleday, 1959); See also Edward T. Hall, The Hidden Dimension (Garden City, N.Y.: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1966).

[3] Jurgen Ruesch and Weldon Kees, Nonverbal Communication: Notes on the Visual Perception of Human Relations (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1956).

In summary, it is hoped that the present study, by exploring a problem which has been so little research and by utilizing a methodology not previously applied to the problem at hand, will yield some new evidence concerning the importance of the nature of linguistic behavior in the performance of the administrative task.

CHAPTER II

THEORETICAL BACKGROUND AND HYPOTHESES ORIENTING THE PRESENT RESEARCH

The purpose of this chapter is to present the theoretical framework which undergirds this study. It is only in the context of this discussion that the parameters of the study and the material presented in the following chapters can be clearly understood. Major attention will first be given to the development of theory related to administrative behavior including a presentation of a general social systems theory applicable to the study of administrative behavior. This will be followed by descriptions of other theories relevant to administrative behavior and organizational operations. These will serve as a background for the development of the hypotheses.

Administrative Theory Related to Language

One basic function of this chapter is to relate administrative theory to a theory of linguistic behavior. In studying the progressive development of administrative theory, one will note that in the early theories language would hold a small place, if any. It would be difficult, for example, to conceive of language as having a part in the early structure-oriented theories. Whereas in the later more person-oriented theories language could be conceived of as having a place, it is not usually included. It is with the advent of the Getzels-Guba systems theory that language can first be seen as an important aspect of administrative behavior.

The Development of Administrative Theory: Major Emphases[1]

Varying historical emphases have operated in the field of administration. These are exemplified in a number of theoretical frameworks, from Taylorism at the turn of the century to the more recent social science orientations. As a background to the present inquiry, these various orientations to administration will be reviewed.

The Managerial Emphasis

Perhaps the earliest systematic view of administration was that represented by the "scientific management" movement,[2] a system of industrial management which had its major impact in the United States from 1910 to 1930. The system was sometimes known as the "Taylor System," after Frederick W. Taylor, the man generally credited with its origin and development. Exponents of this school of thought believed that the purpose of administration was to increase efficiency in industry and that this was to be achieved by maximizing the output of workers in an organization through the application of principles of scientific management. Taylor, in fact, maintained that his goal was the "rational analysis of administrative procedures for exploiting human and material resources in order to attain the objectives of an organization most expeditiously."[3]

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[1] This review leans heavily upon the work by Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process.

[2] See Raymond E. Callahan, Education and the Cult of Efficiency (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1962) for a thorough analysis of this period in administration; Taylor's managerial principles are formulated in Frederick W. Taylor, Shop Management (New York: Harper & Row, 1911).

[3] Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process, p. 23.

While this view did show how many jobs could be done more efficiently, it took a narrow view of administrative behavior and organizational relations, tending to overlook the psychological or personal aspects of mobilizing human effort for production.

Another contributor to this viewpoint was Henri Fayol, who published an influential treatise Administration Industrielle et Générale, in 1916. The main points of Fayol's system are worth noting for they relate to later aspects of this inquiry. These points, or éléments, summarized the administrative task as: "planning, organizing, commanding, coordinating, and controlling."[1]

As with Taylor, Fayol's formulations were derived mainly from experience with industrial enterprises. It remained for Luther Gulick to extend the application of the concept to include administrative performance in organizations across all sectors of society. Gulick took Fayol's éléments and incorporated them into the formula "POSDCoRB,"[2] in which each letter represents an activity which he conceived essential to the functioning of any chief administrator.

The principles of the scientific management school were applied to the educational enterprise by early students of educational administration, such as John Franklin Bobbitt, and Ellwood P. Cubberley. The results of this technical point of view to education were (1) the division of the administrative task into separate units of activity, (2) the prescription of standard tasks and standard techniques for doing them, and (3) the focusing of attention on organizational requirements and institutional elements of administration, to the neglect of interpersonal and personal elements.[1]

---

[1] For a discussion of Fayol's now famous éléments see Henri Fayol, General and Industrial Management, trans. Constance Storrs (London: Sir Isaac Pitman and Sons, 1949).

[2] "Planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, budgeting." See Luther Gulick and L. Urwick, eds., Papers in the Science of Administration (New York: Institute of Public Administration, Columbia University, 1937), p. 13.

The Human Relations Emphasis

Mary Parker Follett, its first exponent, crystallized this approach to administration in her book Creative Experience.[2] A social philosopher with deep psychological insights, she brought the scientific management viewpoint into balance by emphasizing the inclusion of the human aspect in administration. She contended that the fundamental problem of any enterprise, including the educational system, is the building and maintaining of dynamic, yet harmonious human relations. The argument of her book has been characterized by Metcalf and Urwick:

> Its thesis is the reciprocal character -- the interpenetration of all psychological phenomena, from the simplest to the most complex: Human relationships -- the warp and woof of society and of industry -- are at their best when difference is solved through conference and cooperation, when the parties at interest (1) evoke each other's latent ideas based on the facts of the situation, (2) come to see each other's viewpoints and to understand each other better, and (3) integrate those viewpoints and become united in the pursuit of their common goal.[3]

Miss Follett's central thesis was that coordination is the underlying strategy of effective organization. Her argument was not about the worth of job-analytic methods as such, but that job-analytic methods should be applied by experts, managers, and workers together. To the process and organizational aspects of administration emphasized by the scientific management school, she added the human aspect.

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[1] See John Franklin Bobbitt, "Some General Principles of Management Applied to the Problems of City-School Systems," in The Supervision of City Schools, The Twelfth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part I, (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1913), and Ellwood P. Cubberley, Public School Administration (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1916).

[2] Mary Parker Follett, Creative Experience (New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1924).

[3] Henry C. Metcalf and L. Urwick, eds. Dynamic Administration: The Collected Papers of Mary Parker Follett (New York: Harper & Bros., 1942), p. 14.

Systematic and empirical data in support of the human relations point of view were provided by Elton Mayo and his colleagues, notably F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, who reported their famous series of experiments at the Hawthorne Plant of the Western Electric Company in their volume Management and the Worker.[1]

According to Roethlisberger and Dickson, the crucial result of their studies was to demonstrate the importance of employee attitudes and preoccupations. They concluded that the limits of human collaboration are determined far more by the informal than the formal organization.[2] They argued that it behooved management to continuously study individual and group situations and to introduce into its organization the explicit skill of diagnosing human relations and human factors.

Mayo noted the importance of developing in group members a sense of participation in critical determination involving the organization. When workers' self-determination and social well-being ranked high, a milieu of social unity and satisfaction developed.[3]

Although there was some overlap, the influence of Taylor and the "scientific management" representatives generally preceded that of Follett and the human relations school.

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[1] F. J. Roethlisberger and William J. Dickson, Management and the Worker (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1939).

[2] Ibid., p. 568.

[3] Elton Mayo, The Human Problems of an Industrial Civilization (New York: Macmillan Co., 1933), p. 73.

The Social Science Emphasis

In 1938 came the statement of a third and significantly different approach to administration. Chester Barnard in his The Functions of the Executive[1] set forth the clear and explicit need for a general theory of administrative relationships and advocated placing such a theory in the context of the social science of behavior.

Barnard's central thesis is the need for a systematic conceptual scheme of administrative behavior within a social science perspective. His book is divided into two parts. The first part provides a conceptual scheme in the form of a theory of cooperation and organization. The second is a study of the functions and of the methods of operation of executives in formal organizations. In this work, Barnard's intent was to formulate a systematic position for the study and understanding of administrative phenomena which would ultimately result in improved administrative practice.

We are indebted to Barnard for several insights into administrative theory. His definition of organization is worth noting: "a system of consciously co-ordinated activities or forces of two or more persons."[2] He made a significant distinction between the two concepts of effectiveness and efficiency, and asserted that the persistence of cooperation in an organization depends on both of these:

> . . . The persistence of cooperation depends upon two conditions: (a) its effectiveness; and (b) its efficiency. Effectiveness relates to the accomplishment of the cooperative purpose, which is social and non-personal in character. Efficiency relates to the satisfaction of individual motives,

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[1] Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1938).

[2] Ibid., p. 72.

> and is personal in character. The test of effectiveness is the accomplishment of a common purpose or purposes; effectiveness can be measured. The test of efficiency is the eliciting of sufficient individual wills to cooperate.[1]

Barnard summarizes his basic formulation regarding organizations in this statement:

> Organization, simple or complex, is always an impersonal system of coordinated human efforts; always there is purpose as the coordinating and unifying principle; always there is the indispensable ability to communicate, always the necessity for personal willingness, and for effectiveness and efficiency in maintaining the integrity of purpose and the continuity of contributions.[2]

Although Barnard dealt mainly with the structure and function of the formal organization, he pointed out that the formal organization cannot be totally understood unless analysis includes consideration of the informal organizations within it.[3]

Barnard's analysis of the relationship between effectiveness and efficiency, formal and informal organization, cooperative achievement and personal satisfaction, provided a framework for understanding crucial aspects of administrative behavior. It helped to put into perspective the human relations view as represented by Follett and Mayo. Barnard remains the anchoring point for subsequent work in this area.[4]

Current Contributions

The more recent speculative and empirical efforts in the field have been within the theoretical social science point of view. Various aspects of this point of view have been stressed. Herbert Simon's Administrative Behavior: A Study of Decision-Making Processes is well within the conceptual position of Barnard.[1] Simon asserts that the most fruitful approach to understanding and improving administrative behavior is through a decision-making framework. The fundamental aim of "good" administration is to increase the rationality of organizational decisions so that an organization may accomplish its work "efficiently."[2]

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[1] Ibid., p. 60.

[2] Ibid., pp. 94-95.

[3] Ibid., pp. 114-15.

[4] Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process, p. 42.

Bakke and Argyris argue that there is a fundamental and inevitable incongruity between the needs of the mature personality and the requirements of formal organizations.[3] When an individual and an organization come together, the organization will attempt to impress its pattern upon the individual (socializing process); and the individual will attempt to impress his pattern on the organization (personalizing process). A fundamental proposition derived from their framework is that many of the problems of administration are caused by the friction between the two processes, or "by the basic incongruence between the nature of relatively mature individuals and healthy formal organizations,"[4] each seeking to obtain optimum self-actualization.

Indirectly related but nonetheless having perceptible impact on the study and practice of administration has been Kurt Lewin's research on the psychodynamics of democratic, authoritarian, and laissez-faire leadership.[1] The "group dynamics" point of view influenced not only the principles but also the practice of school administration. With its emphasis on allowing groups to make choices, it is in direct contrast to Taylor's principle of separation-of-planning-from-performance.[2]

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[1] Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior (New York: Macmillan Co., 1945).

[2] Ibid., pp. 38-41.

[3] E. Wight Bakke and Chris Argyris, Organizational Structure and Dynamics: A Framework for Theory (New Haven: Labor and Management Center, Yale University, 1954), p. 15, and Chris Argyris, Personality and Organization (New York: Harper & Row, 1957), p. 66.

[4] Argyris, Personality and Organization, p. 211.

No presentation of recent contributions to administrative theory would be complete without mentioning Talcott Parsons and his attempts to construct a general theory of social action.[3] Parsons has influenced many who have written on administration. The rationale which is presented in subsequent sections of this chapter has also been influenced in part by the formulations of Talcott Parsons.

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[1] Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process, p. 42.

[2] Ralph K. White and Ronald O. Lippitt, Autocracy and Democracy: An Experimental Inquiry (New York: Harper & Row, 1960).

[3] See, for example, Talcott Parsons, The Structure of Social Action (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1937); Talcott Parsons, The Social System (New York: Free Press, 1951); Talcott Parsons and Edward A. Shils, eds., Toward a General Theory of Action (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1951); and William Mitchell, Sociological Analysis and Politics: The Theories of Talcott Parsons (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1967).

A Framework for the Study of Administrative Behavior:[1]

The Getzels-Guba Social Systems Theory

The point of departure for the present research is highlighted in this brief definition: "We conceive of administration as a social process and of its context as a social system."[2]

This definition permits one to examine administration structurally, functionally, and operationally.[3] By extension (but still within the perspective of this definition), because language behavior is social behavior, one may also examine administration linguistically. This is the intent of this research.

Structurally, the process of administration is conceived of as a series of superordinate-subordinate role relationships within a hierarchical social system. In the structure of any organization there are related positions -- higher and lower, as well as parallel, each having degrees of possibilities for influencing each other as well as the affairs of the system as a whole.

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[1] Jacob W. Getzels, "A Psycho-Sociological Framework for the Study of Educational Administration," Harvard Educational Review, XXII (Fall, 1952), pp. 235-46; J. W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," The School Review, LXV (Winter, 1957), pp. 423-41; J. W. Getzels, "Administration as a Social Process," in Administrative Theory in Education, ed. by Andrew W. Halpin (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1958), pp. 150-65; Getzels, "The Structure of Roles and Role Behavior in the Educational Setting," in W. W. Charters, Jr. and H. L. Gage, eds., Readings in Social Psychology (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1963), pp. 309-18; Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process. In this context see especially chapters 3 and 4. Although much has been written on this theory, these references describe the major thinking behind the development of the theory.

[2] Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process, p. 52.

[3] These subdivisions and much of the material in this section are based upon Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process, pp. 52-53.

Functionally, the hierarchy of relationships is the locus for allocating and integrating roles, personnel, and facilities to achieve the goals of the system. Certain functions, such as assigning statuses, providing facilities, organizing procedures, regulating activities, and evaluating performance are viewed as the responsibility of the superordinate member of the hierarchy. There is a reciprocal aspect to these functional responsibilities, however, for they are effective only insofar as they "take" with the subordinate member.

Operationally, the administrative process takes effect in situations involving person-to-person interaction. Two separate and dynamic personal situations are the material for enacting any given structural superordinate-subordinate relationship. Each member of the relationship perceives and organizes the relationship in terms of his own individual needs, skills, goals, and past experiences. Existential structure, objects, symbolization systems (verbal and nonverbal) connect the two situations. The basic interpersonal administrative relationship may be viewed as a dyad, the superordinate being the initiator of the administrative action and the subordinate being its recipient. Still there is never complete congruence between the structural arrangements of the organization chart and the operating relationships of the human beings who enter into any set of interactions. The subordinate may, for example, be the initiator of action to which the superordinate must respond.

The Social System as the Basic Unit for Administrative Analysis

Administration always functions within a network of social relationships. This is a crucial factor in the administrative process. To this end, many theorists have recognized the usefulness of the social systems theory, which allows placing the study of administration within the most general context of interpersonal or social behavior, that is, the given social system. This systems concept has been widely recognized as a valuable focus for theoretical analysis and empirical investigation.

Talcott Parsons, for example, has summarized his conception of a social system:

> Reduced to the simplest possible terms, then, a social system consists in a plurality of individual actors interacting with each other in a situation which has at least a physical or environmental aspect, actors who are motivated in terms of a tendency to the "optimization of gratification" and whose relation to their situations, including each other, is defined and mediated in terms of a system of culturally structured and shared symbols.[1]

Thus Parsons points to a social system as comprising an organized network of relationships including not only organizationally structured elements but also individually defined elements.

Homans[2] has noted another aspect of the usefulness of the social-systems concept. He points out that this construct is not restricted by size to either large or small aggregates of human relationships. Regardless of the size of the group to which the concept is applied, these three characteristics of social-systems formulation are applicable:

(1) the interdependence of the parts

(2) their organization into some sort of whole

(3) the intrinsic presence of both individuals and institutions.

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[1] Parsons, The Social System, pp. 5-6.

[2] G. C. Homans, The Human Group, (New York: Harcourt Brace & World, 1950), p. 87.

Analytic Dimensions of the Social System

For purposes of analyzing administrative processes, Getzels suggests viewing administrative behavior as a function of the interaction of two analytic dimensions:

> one drawn from sociological theory, the nomothetic or normative dimension, which describes certain roles and expectations by which the goals of the system are to be achieved. Here the concept of role is central. (See Figure 1.)
>
> the other, the idiographic or personal dimension, which aims at understanding behavior within the system in terms of certain personalities and need-dispositions. Here the concept of individual personality is central. (See Figure 1.)

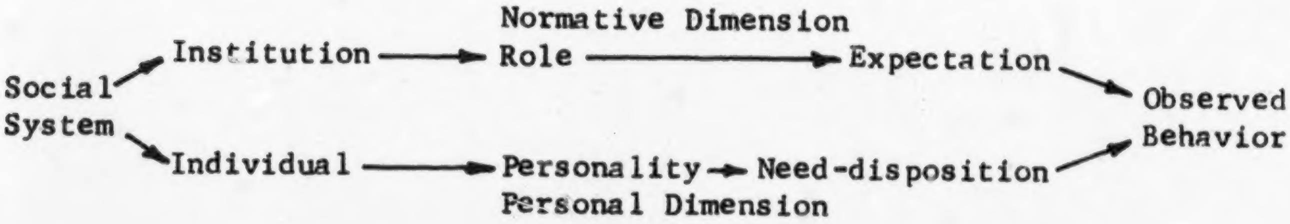

Fig. 1. -- General Model Showing the Normative and Personal Dimensions of Social Behavior Adapted from J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV (Winter, 1957), 429 .[1]

Social behavior may be understood as a function of these component conceptual elements: institution, role, and expectations, which together constitute the nomothetic or normative dimension of activity in the social system; and individual, personality, and need-dispositions, which together constitute the idiographic or personal dimension of activity in the social system.

Regardless of its size, the administrative unit can be conceived of as a social system. Within the given organization, the goal behavior is achieved through the definition of roles and the setting of expectations for the performance of relevant tasks. In this normative perspective, role incumbents are conceived of as actors programmed by institutional expectations, devoid of individualizing characteristics, hence capable of implementing a given role in "carbon copy" fashion.

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[1] Jacob W. Getzels and Egon G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review LXV (Winter, 1957), 423-41.

But roles in social systems are filled by real persons, capable of very individualized behavior. Each informs the expectations of the role with his own unique style of expressive behavior.

Both dimensions come together to produce observable behavior. A given social act is a result of the combination of role and personality factors. In this conceptualization, in other words, a given piece of administrative behavior can be conceived of as deriving simultaneously from both dimensions: from the personal needs and dispositions of the administrator (the personal dimension) and from his perceived role-expectations of the particular situation in which he works (the normative dimension).[1]

Thus observed behavior may be described by the general equation $B = f\ (R \times P)$, where B is observed behavior, R is a given institutional role defined by the expectations attaching to it, and P is the personality of the particular role incumbent defined by his need-dispositions.[2] The proportion of role and personality components varies with the specific system, the specific role, and the specific personality of the role incumbent. The interplay of the factors entering into a given segment of behavior is a proportion between normative and idiosyncratic variables. The general nature of the interaction is represented in the following figure:

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[1] Ibid., p. 429.

[2] Ibid.

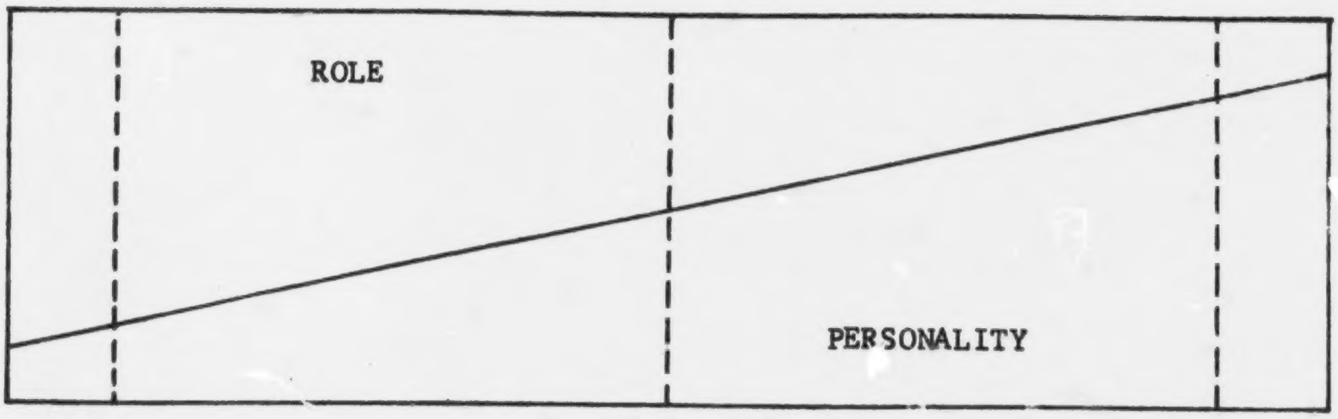

Fig. 2. -- Varying Proportions of Role and Personality Components in Social Behavior Adapted from J. W. Getzels and E. G. Guba, "Social Behavior and the Administrative Process," School Review, LXV (Winter, 1957), 430 .[1]

It is worth noting that even where role is maximized, behavior still retains some personal aspects because no role is ever so closely defined as to eliminate all individual latitude. Where personality is maximized, some role perceptions must still govern social behavior, or the individual ceases to be part of the social system.[2]

Conceptual and Empirical Derivations

The social systems model has given rise to a veritable flood of conceptual and empirical applications which have been relevant to salient issues in the study and practice of administration. Among these issues are (1) the sources of conflict in a social system; (2) the problem of adaptation and adjustment; (3) the meaning of effectiveness, efficiency, satisfaction, and morale in the administrative setting; (4) the nature of authority and leadership-followership styles; and (5) the problem of organizational change.

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[1] Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process, p. 83.

[2] Ibid.

Although all of these issues are relevant to the actual performance of the administrative task in an organization, some of the questions with which they deal are more relevant to the objectives of this particular inquiry.

If we return to the general social systems model, we will recall the basic formulation of social behavior in the administrative setting as a function of role expectations and personality dispositions. Significant distinctions and interactions among effectiveness and efficiency may be viewed in terms of the relationships among these primary elements of the model.

Implicitly or explicitly, no conceptual distinction about organizational behavior is made more frequently than that between institutional (or group) goals and individual (or personal) goals. Moreover, no criteria of evaluation of behavior in an organization have been applied more often than effectiveness and efficiency.

Differently stated, the optimum operation of the organization as a whole depends upon these two factors: effectiveness and efficiency. Using a somewhat different terminology, but referring essentially to the same phenomena, Bakke and Argyris, for example, say that the first problem in organizational life is how to take an aggregate of varied individuals with diverse capacities and predispositions and get them involved in cooperative activity which achieves success for the organization and satisfaction for the persons.[1] In these terms, Barnard's concept of effectiveness refers to the degree of success for the organization, and his concept of efficiency refers to the degree of satisfaction for the individual.

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[1] Bakke and Argyris, Organizational Structure and Dynamics, p. 4.

In the terms of our model, effectiveness is a measure of the concordance of the role behavior and the role expectations. Just as effectiveness is a function of the congruence of behavior and expectations, so also efficiency depends on the relationship between needs and behavior.[1]

Styles of Administrative Leadership Behavior

The Normative Style.--Getzels and Guba have elaborated a conception of leadership behavior which is relevant to this study. The normative style of leadership behavior emphasizes the normative dimension of behavior, and accordingly, the requirements of the institution, the role, and the expectations. In the equation $B = f\ (R \times P)$, P is minimized while R is maximized. Role incumbents are expected to adhere to clearly detailed role expectations in order to attain the institutional purpose. In this style, the most expeditious route to the goal is seen as residing in the nature of the institutional structure, and desired outcomes are achieved regardless of the persons fulfilling the roles. Interactions in the superordinate-subordinate relationship are diffuse, authority is vested rather than entrusted, affectivity is universalistic rather than particularistic, and sanctions are extrinsic rather than intrinsic. The mode of individual-institutional integration is socialization of personality and adaptation rather than personalization of role and self-actualization. The administrator's standard of excellence is effectiveness rather than efficiency. His role may be conceived of as "writing the program" for the machine.[2]

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[1] Getzels, Lipham, and Campbell, Educational Administration as a Social Process, pp. 128-29.

[2] Ibid., pp. 146-47.

As the interpreter and reinforcer of organizational objectives, the administrator has to utilize a universalistic approach with those on his staff. He is expected to discern, influence, help formulate, change, clarify, interpret and implement the goals, policies, and expectations of the organization. In this respect, the administrator is an organizational spokesman, not a personal spokesman.

The Personal Style.--In the personal style of leadership behavior, emphasis is placed on the personal dimensions of behavior and hence on the requirements of the individual, the personality, and the needs-dispositions. In the equation $B = f\ (R \times P)$, R is minimized and P is maximized. In this formulation, the most expeditious route to the goal is seen as residing in the people rather than in the nature of the institutional structure. This point of view, related to the persons who fill the roles, is based on the assumption that goal accomplishment is best realized by making it possible for each person to contribute what is most meaningful to him. Prescriptions by minutely defined roles of the normative style are seen as restrictive. In terms of the major variables of the superordinate-subordinate relationship, authority is entrusted rather than vested, the scope of expectations is specific rather than diffuse, affectivity is particularistic rather than universalistic, and sanctions are intrinsic rather than extrinsic. The mode of individual-institutional integration is the personalization of role and self-actualization instead of socialization of personality and adaptation. The standard of administrative excellence is efficiency more than effectiveness.[1]

The Transactional Style.--In terms of the Getzels-Guba model, however, the ideal administrator is expected to operate effectively on both the normative and personal dimensions. That is, on the one hand, he is expected to reinforce organizational expectations and, on the other, to empathize with organization members. As Getzels et al. point out,[1] the administrator has a transactional role to perform in the organization. At one point he emphasizes the normative expectations of the organization; at another point he pays attention to the personal needs of people in the organization. In the view of these writers, it is this capacity to mediate between organization givens and individual dispositions that characterizes the skillful administrator. The gifted administrator persists in exercising his transactional role, thoroughly aware of the normative and personal dimensions in the organization.

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[1] Ibid., pp. 147-48.

The transactional style calls attention to the need for variations in behavior, moving toward one style under one set of circumstances and toward the other under another set of circumstances. Since the goals of the social system must be carried out, it is obviously necessary to make explicit the roles and expectations required to achieve them. And since the roles and expectations are implemented by people with needs to be met, it is obvious that the personalities of these people must be taken into account. The aim is awareness of the limits of institutional and individual resources and demands within which administrative action must function. In the equation $B = f (R \times P)$, P and R are maximized or minimized as the situation requires. In terms of the variables of the superordinate-subordinate relationship, authority is either vested or entrusted, scope is either diffuse or specific, affectivity is either particularistic or universalistic, and sanctions are either extrinsic or intrinsic, depending upon the circumstances. The mode of individual-institutional integration is socialization of personality and adaptation, and personalization of role and self-actualization. The standard of administrative excellence is both effectiveness and efficiency.

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[1] Ibid., pp. 148-49.

This capacity to emphasize the aspect of leadership which the situation requires takes a rather able, sensitive administrator, capable of making judgments and effecting behaviors required by the situation.

The superior administrator will appreciate that empathizing with organization members is also an aspect of the administrative role. For the administrator to empathize with staff members, he must develop some understanding of personality and of the concepts represented by the term "need-disposition," and in order to do so he must be available and he must listen. He will have to develop the "art" of the particularistic approach, that is, the ability to determine the degree to which extenuating circumstances in particular situations should alter normal expectations for persons in the organization. In carrying out the particularistic aspect of his role the administrator is required to exercise judgment and discretion as to when to reinforce organizational expectations or when to temper them because of extenuating circumstances.

This suggests that if an administrator is to serve as mediator or as transactional leader, still another requirement is necessary: some understanding of his own need-dispositions and the ability to exercise a large measure of self-control in his relationships with other people in the organization. If the administrator understands his own dispositions, he may be able to recognize more quickly the danger signals in the responses of the people with whom he is working. In working with organization members, a mediator must demonstrate considerable stability or self-control. He should have vision to see and know how to tactfully suggest sympathetic alternative solutions to problems. While he is sensitive to individual problems, he must be clever enough to discern situations which will require him to apply universalistic rather than particularistic criteria in decision-making and in carrying out decisions. This requires great sensitivity to the situational differentials and personal processes with which he must deal.[1]

The Halpin Theory: Initiating Structure and Consideration

Within the general framework of the Getzels-Guba conceptualization, aspects of the Halpin Theory (emerging from the Ohio Leadership Studies)[2] have particular relevance for this inquiry. The Halpin Theory, with its specific focus on dimensions of leadership behavior, provides an additional useful conceptual base which parallels somewhat the one which has been presented above. Andrew W. Halpin writes in his monograph, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents:

> In short, if a leader--whether he be a school superintendent, an aircraft commander, or a business executive--is to be successful, he must contribute to both major group objectives, goal achievement and group maintenance; . . . According to the constructs that we have formulated, this means that the leader should be strong in Initiating

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[1] Ibid., pp. 374-75.

[2] Andrew W. Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents. The Perceptions of Board Members, Staff Members, and Superintendents. Reprint of 1956 published by Ohio State University (Chicago: Midwest Administration Center, University of Chicago, 1959); see also Andrew W. Halpin, "A Paradigm for Research on Administrative Behavior," and "How Leaders Behave," in Theory and Research in Administration, Chapters 2 & 3.

> Structure and should also show high Consideration for the members of his work-group.[1]

The two dimensions along which administrative leadership behavior can be defined are:

> Initiating Structure, which means that aspects of the leader's behavior which delineates the relationship between himself and the members of the group and establishes well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure.
>
> Consideration, which refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, and warmth in the relationship between leader and the members of his staff.

(In view of the possible confusion between these two dimensions and the two normative and personal dimensions of the Getzels-Guba framework, it is necessary to point out that although there may appear to be some complementarity between the two, it is largely accidental and more apparent than real.)[2]

From the two dimensions four distinct patterns of administrative leadership behavior can be discerned:

Pattern I High Initiating Structure (+S) and Low Consideration (-C)
Pattern II High Initiating Structure (+S) and Low Consideration (+C)
Pattern III Low Initiating Structure (-S) and Low Consideration (-C)
Pattern IV Low Initiating Structure (-S) and High Consideration (+C)

Halpin notes that there is nothing particularly novel about his two dimensions of leader behavior,[3] and that the principles embodied in the concepts of Initiating Structure and Consideration probably have always been used by effective leaders in guiding their behavior with group members. He also notes that the concepts themselves, with different labels, have been invoked by other social scientists to explain leadership phenomena. For example, in Barnardian terms, the leader must facilitate cooperative action which is both effective and efficient. In Halpin's constructs, this means that the leader must be strong in Initiating Structure and should also show high Consideration for the members of his work-group.

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[1] Halpin, The Leadership Behavior of School Superintendents, p. 6.

[2] Andrew W. Halpin, in a letter to the author, dated October 10, 1967, "The LBDQ was not derived, in the first instance, from a normative-personal conceptualization. . . . In brief, although the two Getzels dimensions and the two LBDQ dimensions are somewhat analogous to each other, they are not actually coterminous."

[3] Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration, p. 87.

Therefore, in Halpin's conceptualization also, superior leadership is associated with above-average performance in both dimensions. The group leader must be skilled in dealing with impersonal goals as well as with personal goals.

The Schutz FIRO Theory: Inclusion, Control, and Affection[1]

Still within the general Getzels-Guba framework and on the assumption that the administrative behavior with which we are concerned here is largely a matter of interpersonal relationships, the relevance of the FIRO theory is apparent. The Getzels-Guba formulation allows us to point out the necessity of obtaining information about the need-dispositions of individuals and relating this to role-expectations in order to understand individual behavior in organization. Clarification of the needs-dispositions aspects of the Getzels-Guba Theory is accomplished by the use of the FIRO (Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation) Theory of William B. Schutz. By regarding the school administration situation as largely interpersonal, Schutz' theory is applicable.

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[1] William C. Schutz, The Interpersonal Underworld, a reprint edition of FIRO. A Three-Dimensional Theory of Interpersonal Behavior. (Palo Alto, Calif.: Science and Behavior Books, Inc., 1956).

His FIRO Theory states that most of an individual's interpersonal behavior is determined by the need-dispositions which govern his unique reactions to his environment and to his perceived role-expectations. The theory was derived to explain the organizationl phenomena which are encompassed by the term interpersonal. Based on a postulate of interpersonal needs, the theory develops the basic ideas that:

1. Every person orients himself in characteristic ways toward other people;
2. Knowledge of these orientations allows understanding of individual behavior and the interaction of people.

"Interpersonal need" is defined as "a requirement for a person to establish satisfactory relations between himself and other people." An individual's interpersonal behavior is seen as determined by his needs in certain basic areas. The dimensions along which Schutz attempts to measure these needs are:

> Inclusion--the need to maintain a satisfactory relation between self and other people with respect to attention and interaction.
>
> Control--the need to maintain a satisfactory relation with others in respect to power and influence so the individual can control his situation in order that his environment can be predictable.
>
> Affection--the need to maintain a satisfactory relation with others in respect to love and affection.

At the level of the self-concept, the three interpersonal needs may be thus defined:

> Inclusion--the need to feel that the self is significant and worthwhile.
>
> Control--the need to feel that one is a competent and responsible person.
>
> Affection--the need to feel that the self is lovable.

With respect to an interpersonal relation, Inclusion is concerned with the formation of the relation, whereas Control and Affection are concerned with relations already formed. Generally speaking, Inclusion is unlike Affection in that it does not involve strong emotional attachments to individual persons. It is unlike Control in that the preoccupation is with prominence, not dominance. Control behavior differs from Affection behavior in that it has to do with power relations rather than with emotional closeness.

Generally speaking, Inclusion is concerned primarily with the problem of *in or out*, Control is concerned with *top or bottom*, and Affection is concerned with *close or far*. A further differentiation occurs with regard to the number of people involved in the relation. Whereas Inclusion is usually a one-to-many relation, and Control may be either a one-to-one or a one-to-many relation, an Affection relation must be dyadic because it involves strong differentiation between people.

For each of these three dimensions there are two aspects or directions, depending upon whether the behavior is *expressed* (e), i.e. initiated toward others, or *wanted* (w), i.e. desired from others. This gives rise to six basic variables:

Expressed Inclusion	Wanted Inclusion
Expressed Control	Wanted Control
Expressed Affection	Wanted Affection

A Sociolinguistic Parallel to the Social Systems Conceptualization

In addition to the sociopsychological conceptualization given above, it is relevant to refer to the sociolinguistic constructs of writers who have addressed themselves to understanding the relations between forms of speech and forms of social relations. Both Durkheim and Weber drew attention to the social significance of language. So did Meillet, who was attracted to the study of language as a social phenomenon and who enrolled in the French sociological school of Durkheim.[1] More recently, such writers as Bernstein,[2] Lefebvre,[3] Cohen,[4] and Aranguren[5] have addressed themselves to sociolinguistic questions.

The Bernstein Theory

Bernstein's conceptualization is particularly relevant to this study. He views language as a series of codes by which the individual acts out his roles in society. Bernstein believes that a number of fashions of speaking ("frames of consistency") are possible and that these are a function of the form which a given social relation takes. The consequence of the form which the social relation takes are often transmitted in terms of discernible syntactic and lexical selections, with modifications in social relations acting upon the mechanisms controlling the selection of these syntactic and lexical options. Changes in social relations affect the planning procedures which speakers use in preparing speech and the orientations which they may take as listeners. Therefore, in Bernstein's sociological argument, the speech-system is taken as a consequence of the form of the social relations, or more generally stated, as a quality of the social structure.[1]

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[1] Antoine Meillet, "Comment les mots changent de sens," in Linguistique historique et linguistique générale, (Paris: La Société de Linguistique de Paris, 1921), pp. 230-71. Reprinted from Année sociologique (1905-1906). Meillet's work delves into both vocabulary and social divisions.

[2] Basil Bernstein, "A Socio-linguistic Approach to Social Learning," in Penguin Survey of the Social Sciences 1965, ed. by Julius Gould (Baltimore: Penguin Books, 1965), pp. 148-68.

[3] Henri Lefebvre, Le langage et la société (Paris, Editions Gallimard, 1966).

[4] Marcel Cohen, "Social and Linguistic Structure," Diogenes, XV (Fall, 1956) pp. 38-47.

[5] J. L. Aranguren, Human Communication, trans. by Francis Partridge (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1967).

Different forms of social relations can generate quite different speech systems or linguistic codes. According to Bernstein, an orientation to the use of a specific code depends not upon the psychological properties of a speaker but upon access to specialized social positions, by virtue of which a particular type of speech model is made available. Then, the codes, with their formal psychological determinants become established on a psychological level. Not all aspects of social structure are translated into elements of the linguistic code, but it is considered that the dominant aspects are so translated.[2]

Role-Learning as a Function of the Communication Process.--It is through a role that an individual is able to enter into persistent forms of interaction and relation in a social system. His experience is transformed by the order of relationships in his environment. He learns to orient himself toward and manage the role requirements necessary for the effective production of the code. As the code becomes established, the role learner through his verbal behavior generates these relationships. As he learns to adapt his behavior to a linguistic code, which is the expression of the role, different orders of relation are made available to him. If the communication system which defines a role behaviorally consists essentially of certain speech forms, it should be possible to distinguish critical roles in terms of the speech forms which they regulate. It is through the linguistic transformation of the role that relevance and social identity are created.[1]

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[1] Bernstein, "A Socio-linguistic Approach to Social Learning," pp. 149-52.

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 158.

Differing coding systems elicit, maintain, and progressively strengthen different orders of experience. The orientation towards these codes may be governed entirely by the form of the social relation, or more generally, by the quality of the social structure. Code symbolizes social identity; it relates the individual to his colleagues and his social relations with them. The code orients the speaker progressively toward a pattern of relationships which constitute for the individual his psychological reality and this reality is reinforced every time he speaks. The individual comes to perceive language as a set of theoretical possibilities for the presentation of his discrete experience to others. It unites the speaker to his subgroup. A change of code involves changes in the means whereby social identity and reality are created.[2]

Modes of Speech and Types of Role Relations.--A code may develop in more than one way. For example, a code may facilitate the verbal elaboration of interpersonal relations, or it may facilitate the verbal elaboration of relations between objects. Each of these two modes differentiates different ranges of experience and presupposes learning to manage different role relations. The referents of the roles are different. For example, an individual going into the arts is more likely to possess a code oriented to the person, whereas an individual going into the sciences may be more likely to possess a code oriented to object relations. Each mode of speech translates a different order of experience and promotes a different type of role relations, based on a disposition toward person or object relations.[1]

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[1] Ibid., p. 152.

[2] Ibid., p. 165.

Two Socially Significant Codes.--Bernstein distinguishes two types of codes which are socially significant: restricted and elaborated. A restricted code allows one to interact with one's fellows in a highly predictable way. It is associated with a certain social set or activity where only a limited number of things can be done. In a restricted code the choices are few and individuality is submerged. The speaker and listener are in a well-defined relationship with each other, with verbal routines laid out in advance. There is not much choice of what to say because there is no need to say much, and the little that is said carries a heavy load of implicit meaning. The speaker is acting a role with speeches well supplied with stock items by the specific department within the social structure where he happens to be moving.[2]

In an elaborated code, the speaker and listener are acting parts in which they must improvise. What the speaker will have to say is difficult to predict because it is related less to the role and more to him as an individual.

Making a parallel with the normative and personal dimensions of the Getzels-Guba model presented above, it would seem that the restricted code parallers the normative dimension, and the elaborated code parallels the personal dimension.

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[1] Ibid., p. 162.

[2] Ibid., pp. 150-53.

In social behavior where role restrictions are emphasized, language is confined to mediating organizational objectives and functions, and hence is more predictable; in social behavior where idiosyncratic behavior is high, the expression of personality is higher and language usage is unpredictable.

Differences in Verbal Repertoires

Since our premise is that language is the key to unlocking some puzzling questions about administrators and because the use of words is central to the administrative task, our investigation now turns to the verbal behavior of different groups.

It is apparent that people differ in their verbal repertoires, and that these differences are fairly consistent.[1] John B. Carroll,[2] the psycholinguist, suggests that in studying differences in verbal repertoires we should start with a wide sampling of language performances and see whether there are any systematic ways in which the members of a particular speech community vary with respect to these performances. We must then see what explanations for these systematic differences we can find.

It is within the perspective which Carroll presents that the first hypothesis of this study suggests itself. The total language sample will first be studied without reference to other criterion variables (This analysis is reported in Chapter IV.) in order to see which language categories are emphasized by participating principals.

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[1] George A. Miller, "Individual Differences," Language and Communication (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1951), pp. 119-39.

[2] John B. Carroll, Language and Thought (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964), p.67.

Hypothesis One:

> There will be differences in the spoken language characteristics of the subjects, in terms of the kinds of words which different subgroups use.

The Specialized Vocabularies of Occupations.--Those who write about about language[1] assert that today special jargons belong to every occupation, serving as communication among those who practice it, making it difficult for outsiders to understand, at the cost of leaving them uninformed. The speech of the minister, for example, differs from the speech of the merchant. Those who are experts in literature need such terms as rhyme, stanza, and protagonist in their discussions; musicians need crescendo, dimuendo, and obligato; scientists make use of electron, cyclotron, and spectrogram. Each specialized field has its own argot, shop talk, trade talk, or jargon; certain words have technical meanings and refer to essential facts or ideas within a field. No other words can serve as synonyms for them.[2]

Bolinger,[3] for one, suggests that most speakers command different styles of speech and that every speaker speaks in as many registers as there are groups among which he moves that have different modes of speech.

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[1] See for example Aranguren, Human Communication, p. 138; Lefebvre, Le Langage et la société, p. 10; Yuen-Ren Chao, Language and Symbolic Systems (London: Cambridge University Press, 1968), pp. 2-3.

[2] Jean Malmstrom, Language in Society (New York: Hayden Book Companies, 1965), pp. 61-62. See also Raven I. McDavid, Each in His Own Idiom (unpublished paper, University of Chicago, n.d.), pp. 4-5.

[3] Dwight Bolinger, Aspects of Language (New York: Harcourt, Brace & World, Inc., 1968), pp. 136-38.

In fact, there is no limit to the number of social affinities revealed in language differences. Some of these, like professions, are formed by association which is more or less voluntary.

Men's talk, therefore, differs from women's talk. Although this line is somewhat blurred in our society, it remains legible. Adjectives like dreadful, precocious, and darling, are more apt to be encountered in women's speech than in men's. In fact, women are more liberal with adjectives in general. In some levels of society men are less inhibited in their choice of words than women, while women generally are less inhibited in their intonational range.

Occupational speech sometimes embodies a variety of names for what appears to be the same thing: the soothsayer, for example has his augury, the meteorologist his forecast, and physician his prognosis, and the scientist his prediction.

But it is not only the words that are different in these cases. It is also the connotative referents of the words which are different, for these words imply different orders of experience, particularly relevant to the occupation which they exemplify. Therefore, speech communities of associational groups with specialized areas of knowledge need their own special languages, because their words deal with a very special part of reality.

Rephrased, each occupation has its own things to talk about, but the differences go beyond merely having different words for different things. Tied to these differences is the fact that every message (or use of language) has its place in a context of previous assumptions. A knowledge of these assumptions and presuppositions is the only thing that can lead to an understanding of the message or language.[1]

In this connection, in 1943, J. P. Foley and Z. L. Macmillan[2] reported an experiment which was designed to demonstrate differences in type of verbal responses as a function of differences in amount and type of professional training. The responses of lawyers were compared with those of doctors. Based on the eliciting of "free associations," the results of the experiment indicated that there were professional differences in such associations, thus affirming occupational conditioning of verbal reactions and suggesting the possibility of the operation of mediated generalization along "professional gradients." To put it another way, Foley and Macmillan found that lawyers respond more like other lawyers than they do like doctors.

Thus the presuppositions or assumptions mentioned above are encoded in the language of the reference group which uses it, or at least in a certain number of key allusions and words which are given more than their normal meaning, reference, and implication.[3]

Some linguistic contents cannot be understood without apprenticeship, not so much on account of the words but of the reality, the experience to which they refer. Scientific and aesthetic communication provide examples of two completely different forms of this apprenticeship.[4] This is reminiscent of Bernstein's distinction (supra p.40)between person-oriented speech codes and object-oriented speech codes.

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[1] Aranguren, Human Communication, pp. 138-39; See also Jean Malmstrom, Language in Society.

[2] J. P. Foley and Z. L. Macmillan, "Mediated Generalization and the Interpretation of Verbal Behavior v. 'Free Association' as Related to Differences in Professional Training," Journal of Experimental Psychology, XXXIII (1943), pp. 299-310.

[3] Aranguren, Human Communication, p. 107.

[4] Ibid., p. 107.

Related to the question of apprenticeship, questions have been asked by experts[1] concerning whether a vocabulary of precise communication exists in educational administration, or whether its development depends upon the prior building up of a body of codified information on administration. Such experts argue that it takes time to build a core of expertise,[2] and that administrators have not had the benefit of a long tradition of codification of technical expertise and specific definition, as have fields such as medicine and law. Without apprenticeship, they inquire, how can there be established frames of reference for administrators, and a vocabulary of precise communication in administration? Nevertheless, observations lead one to suspect that there is a vocabulary peculiar to educational administration, if words such as modular scheduling, flexibility in school construction, and nongraded instruction are frequently heard in the speech of administratiors. Committees and conferences of the American Association of School Administrators must have an effect, at least, on the development of a jargon.

One characteristic of a language that can be used in general communication is that it provides words or linguistic forms sufficient to catalog or describe all or nearly all the experiences or classes of experience that occur to the user of the language. Languages vary in size of their vocabularies, and in the development of different areas of the vocabulary, these factors being chiefly a function of the state of development of the community of users.[1]

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[1] Dan C. Lortie, University of Chicago classroom lectures of February 8 and 22, 1967: See also Donald Erickson, "Dimensions of Administrative Performance that Hemphill Missed," School Review, LXXII (Winter, 1964), pp. 495-98.

[2] Lortie, University of Chicago classroom lectures of February 8 and 22, 1967.

For example, people do vary in the degree to which they notice and concern themselves with the various kinds of attributes that characterize the things and events of their environment.[2] A forester will be more ready than the average person to notice differences among various kinds of trees. Laymen might be satisfied with words like boat, net, hook, and fish, but the inhabitants of Cape Cod employ a lexicon more expansive, discriminative, and precise.

There has been much interest in the question of whether language responses help or hinder nonverbal behavior in ways that include, for example, the question as to whether having names for stimuli helps one to discriminate among things and respond differentially to them.[3] While it is obvious that these differences in response-tendency come about through learning, there is no evidence that language can play a special role in this learning.[4]

It has also been learned that a label is not particularly useful when it does not readily refer to a well-learned class of experiences.[5] Yet, the effect of language is to make the differences among stimuli more noticeable, or salient, than they would otherwise be. The very existence of contrasting words for different categories or for different values of a dimension draws attention to these categories or values, and if a person has to learn to use these words in a way that is acceptable in his speech community, he must of necessity notice and discriminate the corresponding stimuli.

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[1] Carroll, Language and Thought, p. 90.

[2] Ibid., p. 98.

[3] It has been shown in experiments involving color codability that highly skilled workers in occupations dealing with color or taste (or any other sensory dimension) are on the average no better able to make psychophysical discriminations than the average person. But the special names they learn for colors do help in facilitating communication, and do enhance the ability of people to recognize and identify hues from memory. See R. W. Brown and E. H. Lenneberg, "A Study in Language and Cognition," Journal of Abnormal Social Psychology, 1954, XLIX, pp. 454-62.

[4] Carroll, Language and Thought, p. 98.

[5] Ibid., p. 97.

Formal and Informal Pressures which Lead to Speech Adaptation

The pressures of speech communities can be imposed formally or informally. Informal authority is the pressure exerted by the speakers with whom the individual identifies himself. It serves as a model to follow. The individual's mental processes are profoundly conditioned by the habits of thought and view of reality of his in-group, which also functions as a reference group in relation to those outside of it.[1]

Informal Authority.--Informal authority is inseparable from the speech level or occupational register that enforces it. Until he learns the jargon, every newcomer feels out of place. Informal authority depends on the overpowering effect of the many on the few, where everyone else is more versed in the language. The ticket to the in-group is the very familiarity with the new form of speech that their isolation prevents them from getting in the most natural way.

Formal Authority.--Formal authority may operate in giving the aspirant a new set of skills through a formal program of apprenticeship. In a field such as administration, individuals enrolled in a formal program are presented with the opportunity to develop a new set of insights, their perceptions being directed toward discriminating a version of reality relevant to behavior in organizations. According to Bernstein, aspects of the learners' new social structure and environment are translated into the individual's speech code. In Carroll's formulation, the individual internalizes a new class of experiences, and as differences among stimuli become more salient, new labels for them become useful.

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[1] Aranguren, Human Communication, p. 139.

Carroll states that individual differences in verbal abilities can probably be attributed to environmental influences, such as differential opportunities to learn language behavior, and differential conditions of motivational arousal and reinforcement.[1] If this is the case, individual differences in the verbal knowledge factor are clearly related to factors such as socioeconomic status, amount of schooling, parental occupation, and other variables that indirectly measure opportunity and motivation to learn language. It is in this context that information related to the subjects' socioeconomic status was gathered (See description of Background Information Form in Chapter IV.). Within this framework, a second hypothesis suggests itself:

Hypothesis Two:

> There will be differences in the spoken language characteristics of the sample in terms of differences in the subjects' socioeconomic background. The more homogeneous the subjects' backgrounds, the more similar will be their verbal behavior.

Related to this hypothesis is another, which is directly relevant to the method of selection of the sample for this study (Details concerning the sample selection are given in Chapter IV.). In selecting the sample, it was hypothesized that subjects who operate as professionals in affluent communities (and who also reside in these communities) will show differences in both nonverbal and verbal aspects of performance when compared to subjects who operate as professionals in communities of lower socioeconomic level (and who also reside in these communities). Findings concerning this preliminary hypotheses are found in Chapter IV.)

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[1] Carroll, Language and Thought, p. 69.

The Hypothesis Suggested by the Halpin Theory

Measures of the subjects' nonverbal administrative performance were obtained by using an instrument developed in connection with the Halpin Study to measure administrative leadership along the two dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration (The description and use of the LBDQ in this study is described in Chapter IV.).

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), which is relevant to administrative behavior, was administered to the faculties of the principals in the sample. The subsequent analysis of data is expected to determine whether differences in selected dimensions of administrative behavior (Initiating Structure and Consideration) are related to differences in verbal behavior. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis Three:

> Differences in the subjects' scores on Halpin's instrument will be related to differences in their linguistic behavior.

The Hypothesis Related to the Schutz Theory

The remaining hypothesis has to do with the personal dimension of the Getzels-Guba model and is related to the Schutz FIRO Theory presented above.

The FIRO-B instrument (its description and use in this study is presented in Chapter IV) is a measure of the subject's interpersonal needs in the areas of Inclusion, Control, and Affection. The subsequent analysis of data is expected to determine whether differences in the personal need-dispositions of principals and their particular orientations toward interpersonal behavior are related to differences in their verbal behavior. This leads us to the statement of our last hypothesis:

Hypothesis Four:

> Differences in the subjects' scores on Schutz' FIRO-B instrument will be related to differences in their linguistic behavior.

To recapitulate, various approaches to the study of administrative behavior have been examined in this chapter. A rationale for the present research was put forth in terms of the Getzels-Guba social systems model, with additions from the Halpin Theory of administrative behavior, the Schutz FIRO Theory of interpersonal needs, and the Bernstein sociolinguistic theory. In the next chapter, these theories will be related to language categories for the empirical study of administrative verbal behavior.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND RESEARCH DESIGN

This chapter will describe the subjects studied, data employed for both preliminary and subsequent stages of research, the method of analysis, and measurement procedures. Specifically, this will involve discussion concerning definition of the population and derivation of the sample, the instruments administered, and the General Inquirer computer system for content analysis.

Preliminary Research: Definition of Population and Derivation of the Sample

In this section we will give background concerning the principals invited to participate in this study and the methods used in their selection.

The subjects are a stratified random sample of male elementary school principals from the school districts of the greater Chicago suburban area who have been principals of their schools for two years or more. The population for this study was drawn from the northern and southern sections of the geographic area described as the Northeastern Illinois Metropolitan Area in the Suburban Factbook.[1] Socioeconomic data served as the basis for stratifying the school sample. The basis for the socioeconomic stratification of the sample was the social class rank given to the municipality in the Suburban Factbook. This source reported that the ranking from 1 to 100 of each of one hundred communities of 2,500 or more people in the Northeastern Illinois Metropolitan Area was based upon six socioeconomic indices.[1] In establishing the socioeconomic ranking for each community a composite of the following six measures of socioeconomic indices was used:

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[1] Northeastern Illinois Planning Commission, Suburban Factbook 1950-1960: A Socioeconomic Data Inventory for 100 Municipalities in Northeastern Illinois, (Chicago: The Commission, 1960).

(1) median school years completed by persons 25 years and over
(2) per cent of employed persons in white collar occupations
(3) median family income
(4) median value of homes
(5) average value of new home permits
(6) per capita property valuation.

For purposes of this study, the population was confined to schools associated with municipalities listed in the Suburban Factbook as having populations between 2,500 and 35,000 residents. The 2,500 minimum is based upon the lower limit of the population described in the Suburban Factbook. The upper limit of 35,000 was selected because of the method employed in stratifying the field. Because of the nature of this study, it was decided to restrict the field to the North Shore communities in the upper quartile of the socioeconomic ranking scale and to the Rock Island, Illinois Central, and South Chicago communities in the lower quartile of the socioeconomic ranking scale.

This ranking represents a general description of the municipality in terms of socioeconomic characteristics and becomes less useful as an accurate description of the local school attendance unit as the population of the municipality becomes larger and larger. In many cases within communities neighborhoods vary in terms of the mean level of socioeconomic characteristics. Therefore, a mean or median description of a particular municipality might miss the mark as a description of a specific attendance unit within it. It was felt that this condition could be minimized and still provide a sampling from the range appropriately discriminating socioeconomic characteristics, in respect to both northern and southern suburbs, by confining the population to municipalities of 35,000 or fewer residents.

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[1] Ibid., Tables 7a and 7c.

For sampling purposes, the socioeconomic characteristics and size of population for the northern and southern municipalities were ascertained. Of the eleven North Shore municipalities, six were found to meet the criteria established above for size of population and upper quartile socioeconomic ranking. Of the 17 municipalities in Rock Island, Illinois Central, and South Chicago, eight were found to meet the criteria of population size and lower quartile ranking. The following table shows the municipalities which met the criteria established for size of population and socioeconomic ranking.

TABLE 1

UPPER AND LOWER QUARTILE COMPOSITE SOCIOECONOMIC RANKINGS FOR MUNICIPALITIES OF THE GREATER CHICAGOLAND AREA WHICH MEET THE CRITERIA ESTABLISHED FOR SIZE OF POPULATION

Community	Composite Socio-Economic Ranking	Approx. Population Size
Upper Quartile Composite Socioeconomic Ranking (North Shore Communities)		
Kenilworth	1	5,000
Winnetka	2	16,000
Glencoe	4	10,000
Wilmette	5	18,000
Highland Park	6	17,000
Lake Forest	18	10,000
Lower Quartile Composite Socioeconomic Ranking (Southern Chicago Communities)		
Rock Island		
Calumet Park	87	5,000
Robbins	100	5,000
Illinois Central		
Harvey	79	30,000
Phoenix	98	5,000
South Chicago		
Calumet City	80	20,000
Chicago Heights	83	32,000
South Holland	84	5,000
Steger	93	5,000

Source: Northeastern Illinois Planning Commission, Suburban Factbook, Tables 7a and 7c.

The sample size within each stratum was dependent upon the size of the population, the number of school districts, and the number of elementary schools with male principals in that stratum. The Directory of Illinois Schools[1] was used to identify elementary school districts and schools qualifying for sampling. Each school district was telephoned to verify names of elementary schools to determine which schools had male principals who had been principals of their buildings for at least two years.

It was decided that an original sample size of 40 schools, 20 from the upper socioeconomic quartile and 20 from the lower socioeconomic quartile would be adequate to permit meeting the selection criteria for the next phase of the study.

In order to obtain a random sample from the population, two sets of random numbers equal to the sample size were drawn for each stratum. Principals drawn in the original set of random numbers were to be contacted at the start. Those in the second set were to be used for replacement purposes should those in the first group be unable to participate. After securing the permission of the superintendent of schools in each district, invitations to participate were mailed to 40 schools. (A copy of the letter of invitation which was sent to each principal is included in Appendix D.)

Two schools declined to participate. For the first school, replacement was secured from the second set of random numbers. Instead of securing replacement for the other school[1] it was decided to include only the 38 schools in the original sample. The resignation of one principal further reduced the sample to 37 participating schools.[2]

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[1] Directory of Illinois Schools 1967-1968 (Springfield, Ill.: Superintendent of Public Instruction, Department of Textbooks and Publications, 1967).

For each school in the sample in each stratum, this method of sampling was employed. By following this sampling procedure, it was thought that the results of this study would be generalized to other schools included within the limits of this design.

Preliminary Instrumentation: The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire

After this sample of 37 elementary school principals was chosen, the next step was to secure descriptions of their leader behavior from members of their staffs.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ) was chosen as the instrument to be used in measuring the leadership behavior of the principals. This instrument offers an objective and reliable means by which one can determine how specific leaders are perceived to differ in leadership style, in terms of two dimensions, Initiating Structure and Consideration. The LBDQ offers a means of defining these two leader behavior dimensions operationally, making it possible to submit to empirical test additional specific hypotheses about leader behavior.

The LBDQ is composed of a series of 40 short, descriptive statements indicating ways in which leaders might behave. The members of a leader's group indicate the frequency with which he is perceived to engage in each form of behavior by checking a five-point frequency scale. In the LBDQ only 30 of the 40 items are scored. Each of the keys to the dimensions contains 15 items, and each item is scored on a scale from 4 to 0. Consequently, the theoretical range of scores on each dimension is from 0 to 60. The items which define the two dimensions are reported in Appendix A.

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[1] In this case repeated efforts by the researcher met with promises and delays, in spite of the fact that this principal had committed his willingness to participate. It was considered too late to invite a replacement school to participate.

[2] This principal returned to the classroom, but in another school of the same district.

The form on which the group members describe their leader's behavior is referred to as the "LBDQ-Real, Staff." Although group members differ in their perceptions of the leader's behavior, the group leader's behavior can be described most succintly by assigning to him, for each dimension, the mean of the LBDQ scores by which his group members have described him. Although experience with the LBDQ has indicated that average scores computed on the basis of five to seven descriptions would furnish reasonably stable scores which could be used as indices of the leader's behavior, it was decided for purposes of this study to invite all full-time teachers in the subject's school to share in the study by completing the questionnaire.[1]

The test was administered to a total of 755 teachers. Of this number, 730 questionnaires were completed. A 100 per cent response was secured from 26 schools, with a general total response for all participating schools of 96.7 per cent. The mean of the scores by which his staff members described his Initiating Structure behavior was designated as his LBDQ-Real Staff score on Initiating Structure. Likewise, an LBDQ-Real Staff score on Consideration was computed for each principal. By this procedure the responses from the 730 questionnaires were reduced to 74 scores, with two scores for each of the 37 participating principals.

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[1] The researcher administered the questionnaire at the convenience of the principal and his staff. Principals were not present while their staffs were completing the questionnaires. Although the general purpose of the study was explained to all participants, no reference whatsoever was made to the concepts of Initiating Structure and Consideration as dimensions of leader behavior. Sealed envelopes, each containing a questionnaire, written instructions, and a stamped envelope were left with a faculty member in cases of teacher absenteeism.

The Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire--Analysis of Results

Evidence indicates that Initiating Structure and Consideration are fundamental dimensions of leader behavior. It is presumed that every leader, regardless of the institutional setting within which he operates, engages to some extent in both forms of leader behavior, Initiating Structure and Consideration. Effective leader behavior is associated with high performance on both dimensions.[1]

The LBDQ provides a practical and useful technique for measuring the behavior of leaders on these two dimensions. The dimensions of leader behavior may be diagrammed in the following way. The ordinates are defined by the averages of the respective dimensions, and the four quadrants are designated by Roman numerals.

	CONSIDERATION		
INITIATING STRUCTURE	C- S+ (IV)	C+ S+ (I)	MEAN OF INITIATING STRUCTURE SCORES
	C- S- (III)	C+ S- (II)	
	MEAN OF CONSIDERATION SCORES		

Fig. 3. -- A quadrant scheme for describing leaders' behavior on the Initiating Structure and Consideration dimensions. From Andrew W. Halpin, "The Superintendent's Effectiveness as a Leader," Administrator's Notebook, VII, No. 2 (October, 1958).

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[1] Andrew W. Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration (New York: Macmillan Co., 1966), pp. 97-98.

These behavior types represent teacher perceptions of their own principal's behavior. Principals corresponding to these types are perceived as having certain characteristics.

The leaders described in Quadrant I are evaluated as highly effective, whereas those in Quadrant III, whose behavior is ordinarily accompanied by group chaos, are characterized as ineffective. The High Consideration and High Structure principal is perceived as one who regards as important the personal feelings, attitudes, and needs of teachers, while at the same time he maintains a highly structured organization. For example, "he is friendly and approachable," and "he finds time to listen to group members," Yet, "he maintains definite standards of performance," and "He sees to it that group members are working up to capacity."

The Low Structure and Low Consideration principal is perceived as manifesting little concern for the personal needs and goals of subordinates; he is seen as unfriendly and impersonal. Yet, he maintains a loose-knit organization. For example "he [does not] find time to listen to group members," and "he [does not] ask that group members follow standard rules and regulations."

The individuals described in Quadrant II (Low Structure and High Consideration) are seen as ineffective leaders. Although on the one hand this principal is viewed as similar to the first type, on the other hand he is thought to tolerate a very loose organization with little concern about uniformity of procedures and regulations. For example, "he lets other people take away his leadership in the group." He is a reactor rather than an actor. Effective performance is paralyzed by insufficient Initiating Structure behavior.

The leaders in Quadrant IV (High Initiating Structure and Low Consideration) rarely show warmth in their relationships with teachers.

They are so intent upon getting the job done that they forget they are dealing with human beings with feelings of their own. For example, the principal who exemplifies this type "[never] finds time to listen to group members," and "he acts without consulting the group."

Halpin's scheme for graphically representing the scores derived from responses to the dimensions of the LBDQ seems appropriate for delineating the perceived administrative behavior types of this study. One exception made here, for purposes of more clearly indicating the four leadership patterns exhibited by the subjects in this study, is that the medians of the dimension scores, rather than the means, are used as axes.

The differences between the leadership styles of the principals in high (A) and low (B) socioeconomic level communities may be analyzed according to the number and per cent of cases in each group that fall into each of four quadrants, reading clockwise: (1) above the median on Consideration and above the median in Initiating Structure, (2) below the median on Initiating Structure and above the median on Consideration, (3) below the median on Consideration and below the median on Initiating Structure, (4) above the median on Initiating Structure and below the median on Consideration.

The two medians are based upon the sample of principals, stratified by socioeconomic class, and may be construed as coordinates which define the four quadrants. The number and per cent of cases in each stratum that fall into each quadrant are presented in the figure below.

CONSIDERATION

INITIATING STRUCTURE	Below Median	Above Median
Above Median	(IV) C- S+ A = 2 (10.5%) B = 4 (22.2%)	(I) C+ S+ A = 7 (36.8%) B = 5 (27.8%)
Below Median	C- S- A = 4 (21.1%) B = 9 (50.0%) (III)	C+ S- A = 6 (31.6%) B = 0 (00.0%) (II)

Median (Initiating Structure) 38.7

Median (Consideration) 46.3

Fig. 4 -- Number and per cent of principals with LBDQ-Real Scores Above and Below the Median on Initiating Structure and Consideration. (A represents principals from high socioeconomic level communities and B represents those from low socioeconomic level communities.)

Earlier findings utilizing the LBDQ have suggested that the most effective leaders are those represented in the upper right quadrant, and the least effective are those in the lower left quadrant.[1] The leaders represented in the other two quadrants may be conceived of as falling within a middle range of effectiveness. In one instance, represented by the leaders in the lower right quadrant, there is a tendency to show sufficient Consideration but a deficiency in Initiation of Structure; in the other, the converse is true: the leaders are strong in Initiating Structure but fail to show enough Consideration for group members.

Although the differences between the two groups of principals in this sample are generally not of a high level of significance, the findings do suggest that systematic differences tend to operate. The findings may be summarized as follows--

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[1] Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration, p. 105.

(1) Individual scores tend to be slightly higher on consideration than on Initiating Structure. In fact, only five of the principals received higher scores on Initiating Structure (two from the high socioeconomic stratum, three from the lower socioeconomic stratum).

(2) In terms of the North-South division of communities according to the socioeconomic criteria established for the selection of the sample, it is interesting to note several differences--

a. Seventy per cent of the principals from schools in low socioeconomic level communities show low consideration. Fifty per cent of the principals from these communities fall into the quadrant (III) indicating least effectiveness, which is more than twice the percentage of principals from schools in high socioeconomic level communities.

b. By contrast, a tendency toward higher Consideration seems to be the pattern of the higher socioeconomic community principals. Of the North Shore principals, 68.4 per cent tend to exhibit behavior indicative of High Consideration. Scores for 31.6 per cent of these principals place them in Quadrant II, thereby indicating an emphasis on Consideration, with little emphasis on Initiating Structure. The most pronounced difference seems to occur in Quadrant II, where it is observed that no principal from the low socioeconomic communities falls into the High Consideration-Low Initiating Structure Quadrant.[1]

c. While two high socioeconomic community principals (10 per cent) fall into the High Initiating Structure-Low Consideration Quadrant (Quadrant IV), twice as many (22.2 per cent) low socioeconomic community principals fall into this pattern.

d. Seven (36.8 per cent) high socioeconomic community principals fall into the High-High Quadrant (Quadrant I), as compared with five (27.8 per cent) low socioeconomic community principals.

The following table reveals the number of high and low socioeconomic community principals whose higher score is on Initiating Structure or

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[1] Using the χ^2 test, this is a significant difference at the .015 level. The difference in number of High Consideration principals in the high socioeconomic level communities as compared with those in the low socioeconomic community sample is greater than can be attributed to chance.

Consideration, respectively. It also serves to point up the anormal distribution of the Consideration scale:

	Structure		Consideration	
	High	Low	High	Low
High Socioeconomic Communities	9	10	13	6
Low Socioeconomic Communities	9	9	5	13

Fig. 5. -- Principals' scores on Initiating Structure and Consideration according to stratification by socioeconomic level of school community.

As shown in Figure 6, mean scores for principals from high socioeconomic communities are slightly higher than those for principals from low socioeconomic communities on the Consideration dimension, while there is practically no difference for the Initiating Structure dimension. The following table contains means of scores on the LBDQ-Real for both sets of principals. Note that differences are more sharply delineated on Consideration than on Initiating Structure.

	Structure	Consideration
High Socioeconomic Community Principals	38.6	46.9
Low Socioeconomic Community Principals	38.9	43.2

Fig. 6. -- Means on Initiating Structure and Consideration Dimensions for the stratified sample.

The findings represented in Figures 3 through 6 tend to support the initial hypothesis that principals of schools in high socioeconomic communities differ from principals of schools in low socioeconomic communities in leadership style. Those from schools in high socioeconomic communities tend to show greater Consideration than those from schools in low socioeconomic communities. This difference is presumably associated with differences in the institutional and community settings within which the two groups of principals operate.

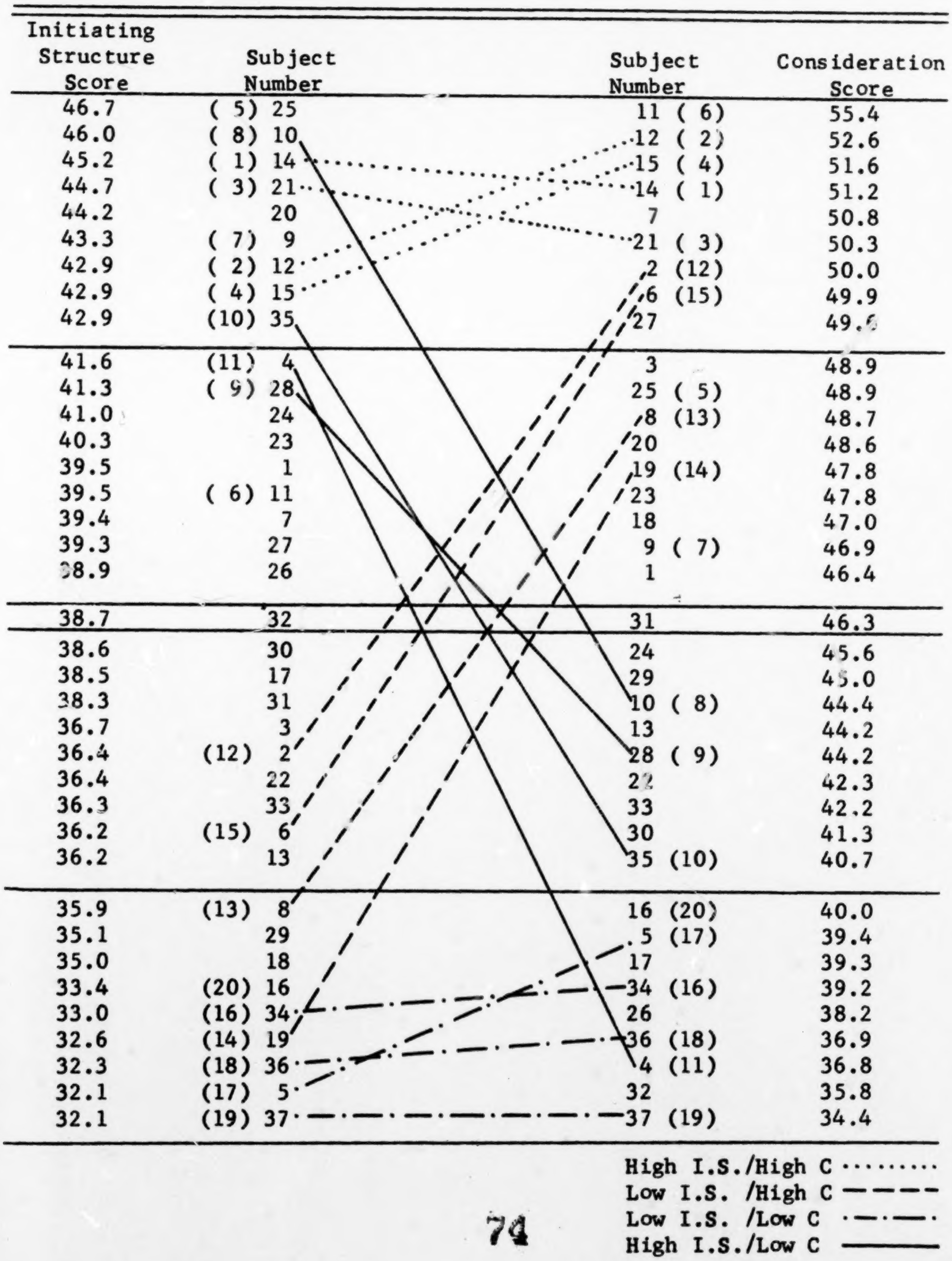
Selection of Subject for Subsequent Stages of the Research

Instead of comparing the two groups of principals by this quadrant method, we may simply juxtapose the data for Initiating Structure and Consideration dimensions, as given in the following table. Juxtaposing the data in this fashion highlights the comparison of both scores for each of the subjects and is useful for the purpose of selecting principals for the second stage of the research.

TABLE 2

INDEX SCORES OF PRINCIPALS ON TWO HALPIN DIMENSIONS

Diagram indicating 16 principals (4 in each quadrant) originally chosen for participation in subsequent phases of research. Numbers in parentheses indicate new numbers for 20 principals participating in subsequent phases of the research.



Initiating Structure Score	Subject Number	Subject Number	Consideration Score
46.7	(5) 25	11 (6)	55.4
46.0	(8) 10	12 (2)	52.6
45.2	(1) 14	15 (4)	51.6
44.7	(3) 21	14 (1)	51.2
44.2	20	7	50.8
43.3	(7) 9	21 (3)	50.3
42.9	(2) 12	2 (12)	50.0
42.9	(4) 15	6 (15)	49.9
42.9	(10) 35	27	49.6
41.6	(11) 4	3	48.9
41.3	(9) 28	25 (5)	48.9
41.0	24	8 (13)	48.7
40.3	23	20	48.6
39.5	1	19 (14)	47.8
39.5	(6) 11	23	47.8
39.4	7	18	47.0
39.3	27	9 (7)	46.9
38.9	26	1	46.4
38.7	32	31	46.3
38.6	30	24	45.6
38.5	17	29	45.0
38.3	31	10 (8)	44.4
36.7	3	13	44.2
36.4	(12) 2	28 (9)	44.2
36.4	22	22	42.3
36.3	33	33	42.2
36.2	(15) 6	30	41.3
36.2	13	35 (10)	40.7
35.9	(13) 8	16 (20)	40.0
35.1	29	5 (17)	39.4
35.0	18	17	39.3
33.4	(20) 16	34 (16)	39.2
33.0	(16) 34	26	38.2
32.6	(14) 19	36 (18)	36.9
32.3	(18) 36	4 (11)	36.8
32.1	(17) 5	32	35.8
32.1	(19) 37	37 (19)	34.4

High I.S./High C ········
Low I.S. /High C – – – –
Low I.S. /Low C ·—·—·
High I.S./Low C ————

From the initial larger sample of principals, 20 subjects were chosen who because of their scores best manifested the contrasts of the four patterns of administrative leadership style. It had been the original intent of the researcher to select only 16 principals for the second stage of the research. However, it was decided to add four more subjects to the sample, primarily to introduce a measure which would guarantee verbal data from 16 subjects. In the end, since a complete sample was received from all 20 subjects, it was decided to include all 20 in the second phase of the study.

Each of the 20 subjects was contacted by letter and invited to continue his participation in the study. His superintendent was sent a copy of the letter (Refer to Appendix D). It was explained in the letter that the second stage of the research would obligate the principal for 40 minutes of his own time to complete the nonverbal instrument phase of the study, and would also involve the principal and several of his teachers in dialogue situations, to produce one-half hour of taped material to be used in the second phase of the study.

All of the 20 principals accepted the invitation to continue in the study. Appointments were scheduled by telephone and initial questions concerning the interview situations for taping were clarified.

Instrumentation for Subsequent Stages of the Research

The FIRO-B Scale

As was explained in Chapter II, clarification of the needs-dispositions aspects of the Getzels-Guba Theory is accomplished by using the Schutz FIRO Theory. The theoretical basis of the Schutz Theory has been described in Chapter II. The FIRO-B scale, derived from the FIRO Theory represents in rather clear terms a set of interpersonal needs which are relevant to a definition of administrative behavior as largely a matter of interpersonal relationships. The FIRO-B is the measuring instrument designed to measure an individual's orientations to these interpersonal needs.[1]

The FIRO-B scale is the product of a long evolution. The title FIRO-B stands for "Fundamental Interpersonal Relations--Behavior," and simply represents the thing being measured, how an individual characteristically relates to other people. The "B" stands for the aspect of personality being explored -- behavior. The instrument is designed to explore how a person actually behaves, rather than how he feels. The primary purposes of the FIRO-B are (1) to measure how an individual acts in interpersonal situations, and (2) to provide an instrument that will facilitate the prediction of interaction between people.

To accomplish the second objective, two aspects of behavior in each dimension are assessed: the behavior an individual expresses toward others (e), and the behavior he wants other to express toward him (w).[2]

The FIRO-B Scale utilizes the Guttman technique for cumulative scale analysis. The six sub-scales of the FIRO-B are comprised of items regularly decreasing in popularity and are constructed in such a way that any individual will accept items sequentially to a given point and then reject the remainder. For each of the cumulative sub-scales of the instrument, there is a length of nine items (10 points). Scores for each scale range between one and nine points depending upon the number of items the subject answers according to the scaling pattern of acceptable responses.[1]

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[1] A copy of this instrument may be found in Appendix B.

[2] William C. Schutz, The FIRO Scales Manual (Palo Alto, Calif.: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc., 1967), p. 4.

As indicated in the following table, the FIRO-B comprises six scales: Expressed and Wanted behavior in the areas of Inclusion, Control, and Affection.

TABLE 3

NAMES AND SYMBOLS FOR FIRO-B SCALES

	Expressed Behavior	Wanted Behavior
Inclusion	e^I I make efforts to include other people in my activities and to get them to include me in theirs. I try to belong, to join social groups, to be with people as much as possible.	w^I I want other people to include me in their activities and to invite me to belong, even if I do not make an effort to be included.
Control	e^C I try to exert control and influence over things. I take charge of things and tell other people what to do.	w^C I want others to control and influence me. I want other people to tell me what to do.
Affection	e^A I make efforts to become close to people. I express friendly and affectionate feelings and try to be personal and intimate.	w^A I want others to express friendly and affectionate feelings toward me and to try to become close to me.

Source: Schutz, The FIRO Scales Manual, p. 5.

Since the original publication of the instrument in 1958, research on FIRO has taken place in a wide variety of fields, including the use of FIRO-B in marriage counseling, the evaluation of human relations workshops, and in studies of the effects of compatibility in real life dyads, e.g. doctor-patient, teacher-student, and salesman-customer. In clinical work there has been exploration of the usefulness of Inclusion, Control, and Affection as possible dimensions for psychiatric classification. There has also been exploration of the relation of the FIRO dimensions of interpersonal needs to other dimensions such as birth order, need affiliation, social class variables, and differences among various occupational groups.[1] After presenting the FIRO scores of the subjects on this sample we shall compare results from our sample with those of members of Schutz' sample of school administrators.

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[1] Ibid., p. 3.

The FIRO-B instrument also has many advantages in terms of its administration. It is relatively short and can be completed in a few minutes. The items are non-threatening and do not arouse feelings of invasion of privacy. The scales are self-administering and scoring is a simple, rapid clerical operation. The scores produced are relatively easy to interpret because they are based on the same number of items.

In the case of this study, the FIRO-B instrument was completed by the principal in a few moments while he was alone in his office, after the administration of the Background Information Form by the researcher. The results of the FIRO-B analysis are reported below.

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[1] Schutz, The FIRO Scales Manual, p. 7.

TABLE 4

SCORES ON SIX DIMENSIONS OF FIRO-B INSTRUMENT FOR SAMPLE OF TWENTY PRINCIPALS

Subject	Inclusion Expressed	Inclusion Wanted	Control Expressed	Control Wanted	Affection Expressed	Affection Wanted
1	7	4	5	5	6	7
2	6	0	5	5	8	8
3	3	7	0	3	1	5
4	1	0	5	3	3	5
5	7	0	4	4	7	5
6	7	7	3	4	5	5
7	4	0	5	5	1	0
8	4	0	4	3	0	0
9	4	1	7	4	3	4
10	4	0	3	3	3	5
11	7	2	4	1	3	5
12	4	0	4	5	0	0
13	7	3	2	4	6	5
14	6	0	5	4	5	5
15	6	0	6	4	3	6
16	6	0	7	1	3	3
17	4	4	5	5	1	2
18	4	0	6	3	2	4
19	4	0	3	3	3	5
20	5	1	9	5	7	8

TABLE 5

MEAN SCORES FOR 20 PRINCIPALS ON SIX DIMENSIONS OF FIRO-B INSTRUMENT

Inclusion Expressed	5.0
Inclusion Wanted	1.5
Control Expressed	4.6
Control Wanted	3.7
Affection Expressed	3.5
Affection Wanted	4.3

The highest scores for our sample were received on Inclusion Expressed ($\bar{X} = 5.0$), Control Expressed ($\bar{X} = 4.6$), and Affection Wanted ($\bar{X} = 4.3$). The lowest score was received on Inclusion Wanted ($\bar{X} = 1.5$), while scores received on Control Wanted ($\bar{X} = 3.7$) and Affection Expressed ($\bar{X} = 3.5$) were similar to each other.

A comparison was made between the scores of our sample of 20 principals and those of the educational administrators reported by Schutz in The FIRO Scales Manual.[1] Concerning this comparison the following comments may be made:

(1) The highest score for both samples was received on the Inclusion Expressed dimension.

(2) While almost identical scores are reported for the Control Expressed dimension, principals in our sample scored lower than did those in the Schutz sample.

The Background Information Form

In Chapter II some hypotheses have been stated regarding the relationship between the use of language and certain personal history variables. In order to study the possible relationships between language and other variables, it was necessary to develop an instrument designed to secure information about the subjects. It was considered potentially useful in the study to utilize a questionnaire which was developed by the investigator, the Background Information Form.

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[1] Schutz, The FIRO Scales Manual, p. 7.

The exploratory nature of this study is reflected in the items contained in the questionnaire. In addition to the usual questions concerning information related to educational achievement and socioeconomic factors such as father's occupation, items relating to certain environmental factors in home and community were included. For example, questions were asked which related to language models provided in the home, possible academic guidance from parents or teachers, reading habits of the subjects at present as well as when youngsters, and questions regarding motivation to achieve in the educational profession. The information desired was designed to relate to three areas: personal history, educational history, and professional history.

In order to collect data, the interview technique was adopted. This approach was considered suitable for this research for various reasons, i.e. it provided freedom to the interviewer for asking "probe" questions and for discussing situations in detail, thereby obtaining valid information on different aspects of the investigation. The interview schedule was kept flexible in order to elicit adequate and clear information about the different aspects of the three sections of the questionnaire.[1]

The final interview schedule (Background Information Form) was developed from preliminary tryouts with elementary school principals in a large city. The original schedule had been prepared in light of suggestions obtained from the theoretical and research literature dealing with language, sociology, and psychology. It is important to note that there is little firm evidence concerning which specific nonverbal variables are related to language performance because this is a relatively new area of interest. Although there is evidence to support the linkage of socioeconomic variables to language performance, the exploratory nature of this study is highlighted by the inclusion of other types of items in the interview schedule. The final interview schedule used for the data collection appears in Appendix C. In all it contains fifty questions. Most of the questions have sub-questions for the purpose of eliciting precise and comprehensive responses. The results of the questionnaire are reported in Chapter IV.

The Principal-Teacher Interviews

The verbal data base is comprised of the typescripts of principal-teacher dialogues which took place between each of the 20 principals and a number of their teachers, selected at random. Tape recordings were made of these conversations. Principals were requested to hold conversations in their offices unless this would introduce an unnatural environment vis-à-vis their usual modus operandi with respect to teacher conferences. (In the case of one principal, conversations were taped in the Faculty Social Room, because this was the place where he would naturally hold his conferences with teachers.)

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[1] The interview was conducted in the principal's office, on the same day as the FIRO-B was administered. Although the letter explaining the details of participation in the subsequent stages of the research suggested that only forty minutes of time would be required of the principal, the decision to utilize the interview schedule rather than to just administer the questionnaire meant that in reality the principal's time would be obligated, more realistically, for eighty minutes. All of the principals were advised of the need for more time prior to the researcher's visit and were very cooperative in allocating more time to the visit. In one case, an alternate date had to be chosen for the visit, when the principal would be free to give ample time to the research project.

Our concern that samples of speech to be used in this research should be comparable raised a question concerning whether we should ask principals to speak with their teachers on specific pre-arranged topics, or whether we should permit them to speak on whatever topic they wished. We decided to conduct an informal check by asking principals to name three topics which would be most likely to be the subject of natural situational dialogue between them and their teachers during the spring semester of the academic year. In all cases the subject of pupil promotions and retentions was one of the three choices named. Asking the principals to record their conversations on this topic seemed to be a realistic, yet natural way to provide stimulus conformity in the conversations to be used for analysis.

In order to obtain an adequate sample of each principal's verbal behavior, each principal was asked to submit a minimum of five taped principal-teacher conversations. From this pool of verbal data, three five-minute random cuts of speech for each of the 20 principals were selected for use in the research. Each of the three cuts was taken from a different speech occasion, involving a conversation with a different teacher.

These three conversations were processed as three separate units, each representing a basic data unit, for a total of 60 basic data units to be utilized as input for the statistical programs.

To reduce the impact of the researcher's role and to contribute toward producing the tape recordings under conditions unaffected by the researcher's presence, the researcher decided to make the recording situation the principal's responsibility. It was ascertained that each school had a sufficient number of tape recorders to permit the principal easy access to one of them without limiting tape recorder availability to pupils. In all cases principals had had experience with using tape recorders and so they were familiar with operation of the equipment.

Tapes were either mailed or left with the principal on the occasion when the researcher was visiting the school for purposes of conducting her interview with the principal. Because the principal-teacher conversations to be taped were related to a topic naturally arising in each school, and so as not to introduce an element of artificiality into the situation, principals were requested to tape the interviews as they would ordinarily occur in the natural sequence of events. Therefore, interview taping extended from February through June, and tapes were mailed to the researcher during the period of five months.

Content Analysis

Several definitions of content analysis have been suggested. One authority suggests that content analysis "is a research technique for the objective, systematic, and quantitative description of the manifest content of communication."[1] A more recent definition defines content analysis as "any research technique for systematically and objectively identifying

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[1] Bernard Berelson, Content Analysis (Glencoe, Ill.: Free Press, 1952), p. 18.

specified characteristics of messages."[1] The first definition leaves the crucial term "content" undefined, and the definition thus fails to delineate the empirical domain of the technique. The second fails to recognize the cruciality of the process of making specific inferences, which would offer the important distinction between treating data as observations and treating data as messages about unobserved phenomena. Another recent definition suggests that content analysis be restricted to "the use of replicable and valid methods for making specific interences from text to other states or properties of its source."[2] In the message analysis situation, large segments remain inaccessible to direct observation. For example, in this study, typescripts of teacher-principal interviews represent only a small aspect of the principals' behavior. Other portions of the behavior are submerged, detached from the situation which the typescript characterizes.

Message analysis is restricted here as a definition of any scientific method for making specific content inferences from recorded text. It refers to an explicated process that can be talked about and replicated with a minimum of intuitive judgments. The concern here is not with analyzing the content of a message, but rather with inferring content in reference to some source against which content inferences may be validated. Analytical constructs for making the inferences should be explicit and open to detailed examination independent of the particular situation in which they are applied.[1]

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[1] Ole R. Holsti, "Content Analysis," in Gardner Lindzey and Elliott Aronson, (eds.), The Handbook of Social Psychology, 2d ed. (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1968), p. 7.

[2] Klaus Krippendorf, "Models of Messages: Three Prototypes," in The Analysis of Communication Content: Scientific Approaches and Computer Applications, ed. by George Gerbner, et al. (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1969), p. 70.

Content analysis as a primary approach to the study of communication is enjoying renewed interest because computer applications and the development of machine techniques have increased the amount of qualitative data which can be processed economically. Prior to the advent of the high-speed computer with capability of handling verbal material, the problem of reliability had been a central problem in content analysis research. Researchers had been forced to choose between low reliability and straightforward counting of occurrences. With computerized methods, verbal data can be processed with speed and reliability. It now is possible to carry out sophisticated content analysis processes as well as more complex quantitative analyses.[2]

The advent of the computer has coincided with the realization by social scientists of the critical nature of communication messages as behavioral data. Interpersonal communication, political documents, psychological protocols, and mass media messages constitute rich sources of data and are often produced under conditions unaffected by the researcher's role.

Content analysis is a valuable and useful research approach. The utilization of computerized techniques can produce more accurate results than the older traditional techniques, is useful in testing hypotheses, and is capable of uncovering information otherwise unobtainable. Content analysis is often useful in studying problems difficult to approach via other research methods. It has a distinct advantage in social research in that it is one of those "unobtrusive" or "nonreactive" measures.[1]

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[1] Klaus Krippendorf, "Models of Messages: Three Prototypes," in The Analysis of Communication Content: Scientific Approaches and Computer Applications, ed. by George Gerbner, et al.

[2] Barry McLaughlin, "Identity and Personality: A Study of Self-Perceived Identity in College Students" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Dept. of Social Psychology, Harvard University, 1965), pp. 81-87.

The General Inquirer System: A Definition and Description

The General Inquirer System[2] is the computer program of content analysis used in this study. It was developed by Philip Stone and his colleagues at the Harvard Social Relations Laboratory. It is intended to serve as a means of analyzing a variety of verbal materials. The General Inquirer Sytem consists of a series of useful components, for example:[3]

(1) Procedures for preparing text, such as four category syntax editing.

(2) Procedures for developing or modifying dictionary categories to represent the theories under consideration.

(3) Procedures for looking up words found as dictionary entries and assigning content analysis categories.

(4) Procedures for tag tally, which is a count of the number of times each category appears in the tagged text.

(5) A retrieval program capability which reads one or

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[1] Eugene Webb, et al., Unobtrusive Measures: Nonreactive Research in the Social Sciences (Chicago: Rand McNally & Co., 1966), pp. 127-35.

[2] Philip J. Stone, et al., The General Inquirer: A Computer Approach to Content Analysis (Cambridge, Mass.: The M.I.T. Press, 1966).

[3] Ibid., Chapter Three, "The General Inquirer."

> more questions keypunched by the investigator and searches tagged text for sentences which match the question specifications. (The computer can be requested to print out all sentences containing specific language categories, specific words, or parts of words. It can be directed to search out co-occurrences of tags within sentences.)

The Dictionary

The dictionary is a crucial part of the operation of the General Inquirer System. It represents the investigator's theory. The category concept is meant to stand as a theoretical variable and each of the dictionary entries comprising that category is considered relevant to that variable.

Verbal data is transferred to punched cards and submitted to the General Inquirer Program. The program searches the dictionary and tags words with one or more tags whenever the word is found in the dictionary. The computer produces a tape containing the computer tagged text. This tape serves as input for the "tag tally" phase of the program.

The list of tagged sentences is submitted to the computer, which tallies the percentages of sentences containing words in each of the dictionary's categories. The same information is also punched onto cards which may be used as input for statistical programs.

The Retrieval Program

After one is satisfied that the dictionary categories have been correctly assigned to the text, the General Inquirer may be asked to locate sentences containing entry words from specific language categories. The retrieval program is used for this operation. Retrieval questions make it possible to ask specific questions about categories. Context and word relationships can be studied. To be sure that the computer does not mis-tag the data, a handcheck is necessary, and correction of mis-tagging is done by hand.

The Residual List

Words which are not found in the dictionary are printed on a residual list. This list may contain clues leading to modifications needed in the dictionary to make it more sensitive to the theory being studied. Rare words, although interesting, are not warranted for inclusion in the dictionary if they do not appear frequently enough to establish a pattern which is relevant to the theory. The General Inquirer model is useful precisely for this very reason, that is, that it can test theory on data, rather than just examining the data for its own sake.

Advantages and Limitations of the General Inquirer

Advantages.--The General Inquirer System represents a method of achieving exact, quantitative data through procedures in which the different operations are completely explicated. Therefore, little vagueness or reliance on intuition remains. Even though subjective decisions were made during the dictionary construction stage (we refer again here to the Harvard III dictionary), such decisions are rendered intersubjective since decisions are specified in the dictionary for all to see.

The retrieval operation of the General Inquirer System permits the researcher to reformulate his questions continuously and to probe his data from a number of different points of view. It is advantageous to be able to deal with the data in many ways. The General Inquirer System enables the researcher to operate with greater scope than did earlier non-computerized approaches.

Limitations.--Given the danger that the system may be applied too facilely, that is, that too much interpretative weight may be attributed to the concepts represented by the language categories, it is important to return to the data to determine whether legitimate conclusions have been drawn. Context must be continuously examined in order to insure that the distinctions and meanings captured are those which the subject intended.

Some fundamental theoretical questions remain concerning the relationship between the counting of words and the decoding of meaning. The theoretical bases for content analysis are not as yet fully developed. Relevant theoretical formulations have yet to be brought to bear on content analysis as part of the study of the communication process.[1] Research remains to be done on (1) the integration of theories of linguistics into content analysis procedures, (2) finding a theoretical base for content analysis, and (3) the role of modern computer approaches.

[illegible]eral Inquirer Tags Related to this Study

The tags or categories employed in the General Inquirer procedure for this research will be described in the following chapter. Each fits into a general theoretical framework relating to administrative behavior in organizations, as described in Chapter II.

In this chapter we have presented the various aspects of our methodology and research design. We have indicated the steps taken in drawing our original sample and the sample used in the subsequent phases of the research. We have presented the three instruments (LBDQ, FIRO-B, and Background Information Form) used in the research, as well as reported results of the LBDQ and FIRO-B analyses. We have also presented information regarding content analysis and the General Inquirer computer-based system for content analysis.

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[1] F. Earle Barcus, "Education in Content Analysis," in The Analysis of Communication Content: Scientific Approaches and Computer Applications, ed. by George Gerbner et. al. (New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1969), p. 553.

The following chapter offers a discussion of the categories of the Harvard III dictionary and the method of category reduction utilized in this study. We will also discuss the two cluster analyses which were run, the first utilizing language data, and the second utilizing personal background variables which were gathered by means of the Background Information Form.

CHAPTER IV

INTERPRETATION OF CLUSTER ANALYSES

Categorization and the Dimensions of Administrative Performance

The central concern of this thesis has been to further our understanding of administrative behavior through a study of the verbal behavior of school principals. Our approach is based on a theoretical view which regards the leadership behavior of administrators as a function of institutional and individual dimensions interacting within a social systems framework. Certain aspects of this theoretical framework are derived from the conceptualizations of Getzels and Guba, while other parts are based on the formulations of Halpin and Schutz.

Concerning language, the view espoused here is the general approach taken by linguists, sociologists, psychologists, and technologists of various schools, namely, that the main purpose of language is to communicate and that language is a social institution. This implies that communication takes place within the context of social interaction and recognizes the interdependence of the persons sending and receiving messages.[1] Language has been called "the basic social instrument."[2]

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[1] Victor Tauli, Introduction to a Theory of Language Planning, Vol. VI of Studia Philologiae Scandinavicae Upsaliensia, ed. by Valter Jansson, Lennart Moberg, and Harry Ståhl (6 vols.; Stockholm: Almqvist & Wiksell, 1968), p.9. See also Bernstein, "A Socio-linguistic Approach."

[2] Tauli, Ibid., p. 5. See also Araguren, Human Communication, and Bernstein, Ibid.

As such, it is a tool which every man uses every day. It is the instrument which is used in all major cultural and social affairs. In relation to our present concern, language is essential in carrying out the objectives of administration.

In the preceding chapter we described the General Inquirer System for linguistic content analysis. The dictionary of language categories was cited as a crucial element of the System. Theoretical variables relevant to the present research are operationalized in the entry words which define the language categories which make up the dictionary. The language categories utilized here provide an analytic structure for interpreting the situational dialogue of school administrators. These language categories exemplify the frameworks of Halpin and Schutz as they are related to the Getzels-Guba social systems construct and the sociolinguistic conceptualization of Bernstein. Concomitant with these frameworks are notions from other theorists, as suggested during the critical review of the literature in Chapter II, e.g. Barnard, Argyris, and Meillet.

The Harvard III Dictionary

The Harvard III Dictionary is a general purpose set of 83 language categories for use with the General Inquirer System of content analysis. This dictionary is utilized in conjunction with research of a psychological and sociological nature. It represents an attempt to apply an operational form of a general theory of action to the analysis of documents.[1] The Harvard III is termed a "psychosociological" dictionary because it was designed for those investigators with psychological and sociological objectives and theories. The generality of the Harvard III permits is usefulness to a large number of researchers engaged in diverse problems.

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[1] Stone, et al., The General Inquirer, p. 171.

A perusal of the Harvard III dictionary brings to light its potential usefulness in the present research. For example, sociology and anthropology furnish a set of categories suited by classifying roles, collectivities, actors, situations, values, norms, objects, and institutions. These are represented by categories under the headings entitled "persons," "groups," "physical objects," "qualifiers," "environments," "culture," "institutions," and "statuses."

In the dictionary, psychological concepts are embodied in categories which classify dynamic processes and themes. Concepts of emotion and cognition, interpersonal and instrumental behavior are represented by categories listed under the headings "emotional actions," "impersonal actions," and "psychological themes."

The Harvard III makes a distinction between first-order and second-order categories. First-order categories are a set of mutually independent categories. Second-order categories are not independent entities. The first-order level contains nouns (object names) which have been given a sociological definition and verbs which have been given a psychological definition. The distinction between nouns and verbs is not maintained at the second-order level since the second-order categories are designed to transcend the object-action basis for classifications used in the first-order section of the dictionary and to "fill out" additional levels of meaning.[1]

The Harvard III draws its content from various sociological and psychological frameworks. For example, the sub-section on institution and status tags, which provides a comprehensive and basic coverage of the area of sociological concern, draws its inspiration from the theory of social action. These are categories for classifying roles, objects, and cultural artifacts. Categories for dynamic processes are drawn from psychology.[2]

The Selection of Language Categories Relevant to Administrative Theory

The researcher who decides to use the Harvard III dictionary faces a crucial question of selection, namely, what categories does he want to use in tagging text?

The Harvard III dictionary, with its comprehensive sociopsychological orientation contains some categories which appear to be well-suited to the needs of this inquiry because they represent concepts related to our theory. It is particularly important in this study to choose a set of variables in some systematic manner in order to overcome the problem of sample size, since the number of language categories (variables) being measured exceeds the number of cases being analyzed.

The tactic chosen to overcome this problem of the reduction of the number of language categories was to discard all variables that appeared to be theoretically unimportant. Specific criteria were followed for the reduction of the variables in order to avoid the possibility of researcher bias. Criteria utilized for language category selection were made explicit and the selections verified by a researcher colleague conversant with administrative theory, and also having familiarity with the Harvard III dictionary.[1] The primary criterion for inclusion was theoretical relevance. In this systematic manner a set of 27 Harvard III language categories was chosen. Subsequent phases of this inquiry are restricted to these 27 variables.

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[1] Stone, et al., The General Inquirer, pp. 171-83.

[2] Ibid., pp. 170-71.

The 27 language categories which were finally chosen for use in this research on the basis of theoretical relevance are:

SELF	All pronoun references to the personal self
SELVES	All pronoun references to the inclusive self
OTHER	All non-sex-specific pronouns for other
SMALL-GROUP	Groups in which members are usually able to have face-to-face interaction
TIME-REFERENCE	References to measurement of time
THOUGHT-FORM	Units and styles of reasoning
AROUSAL	States of emotional excitement
URGE	Drive states
CAUSE	Words denoting a cause-effect relationship
OUGHT	Words indicating a moral imperative
COMMUNICATE	Processes of transmitting meaning
APPROACH	Words indicating movement toward
GUIDE	Words indicating assistance and positive direction
CONTROL	Words indicating limiting actions
FOLLOW	Words indicating submissive action
ATTEMPT	Words indicating goal-directed activity, implying effort
WORK	Words indicating task activity
GET	Words indicating obtaining or achieving action
ACADEMIC	Words indicative of the academic or school context
ARTISTIC	Words indicative of the artistic context
LEGAL	Words indicative of the legal context
HIGHER-STATUS	Words defining higher status roles
LOWER-STATUS	Words defining lower status roles
OVERSTATE	Emphatic or exaggerated words, generally adjectives or adverbs
UNDERSTATE	Words, generally adjectives or adverbs, connoting doubt or uncertainty
SIGN-STRONG	Words connoting strength or capacity for action
SIGN-ACCEPT	Words implying interpersonal acceptance

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[1] Criteria utilized in category reduction may be found in Appendix E.

Application of Cluster Analysis Program

The statistical technique of cluster analysis[1] suggests itself as a useful tool to apply in the next stage of this research. It is a technique which can be used to identify groups of variables influenced by some common characteristics. It examines the similarities of subjects' score profiles to determine whether they can be arranged into groups, members of which can be said to have more in common with each other, in some sense, than with members of other groups. Cluster analysis is a useful technique when operating with profiles of subjects measured on specific tests. It is a technique of probing for groups, or of finding which groups might be in the population. Cluster analysis as a multivariate technique differs from discriminant analysis. As opposed to discriminant analysis methods where the groups are known beforehand, the groupings, in cluster analysis, if they exist, emerge from the data analysis. While cluster analysis will not tell us the relationships between subjects or variables, it has the advantage of pointing up into what groups they cluster.

Cluster analysis techniques were applied in two instances.[2] First, the subjects were clustered according to their usage of the 27 language variables. Next, a second analysis was carried out utilizing personal history variables selected from the information gathered by the Background Information Form.

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[1] R. L. Thorndike, "Who Belongs in the Family?" Psychometrika, XVIII (December, 1953), 267-76.

[2] The program which was utilized in this research was adapted by Robert Wood of the University of Chicago from Veldman (1967) which in turn was based on the computing algorithm devised by Ward (1963). The program will cluster either individuals or variables, as desired.

Grouping Subjects According to their Usage of 27 Language Variables

The cluster analysis technique was first used to group the twenty subjects by the similarity of usage of the 27 theoretically related language categories. Three separate analyses were carried out, the 20 subjects being clustered according to their percentage scores on the language variables taken over the three five-minute samples of representative conversation.

Interpretation of Cluster Analysis One: Two Linguistic Patterns

We find that when the cluster analysis program is applied to the three profiles of 20 subjects measured across the 27 language categories, 11 of the subjects fall into the same linguistic pattern (Linguistic Pattern I or II) on all three occasions, and the remaining nine subjects, of course, cluster into either of the two patterns for two of the three samples.

For purposes of analysis we have taken subjects in columns one and two as representing Linguistic Pattern I and subjects in columns three and four as representing Linguistic Pattern II. The table which follows shows the clustering patterns for the 20 subjects.

TABLE 6

RESULTS OF CLUSTER ANALYSIS ACROSS THREE SAMPLES OF LANGUAGE VARIABLES

Linguistic Pattern I		Linguistic Pattern II	
3 samples	2 samples	3 samples	2 samples
1	2	3	5
4	11	6	10
8	12	7	14
19	17	9	18
	20	13	
		15	
		16	

We observe that four subjects cluster into Linguistic Pattern I in all three language samples, and seven cluster into Linguistic Pattern II in the three language samples. Five which cluster together on Linguistic Pattern I for two of the three samples are also considered to have greater affinity with the "hard core" members of Linguistic Pattern I, while four subjects which cluster into Linguistic Pattern II for two of the three samples are grouped with Linguistic Pattern II. This gives us two largely distinct groupings, with nine subjects in Linguistic Pattern I and 11 subjects in Linguistic Pattern II.

The subjects therefore tended to fall into two seemingly different groups, partitioning themselves more or less into two groups which apparently speak differently from each other, forming Linguistic Pattern I and Linguistic Pattern II, respectively.

In checking back to the geographic location of the principals' schools, it was found that principals in Linguistic Pattern I came primarily from schools located in high socioeconomic level areas (Level A), while principals in Linguistic Pattern II came mainly from schools in low socioeconomic level areas (Level B). Thus cluster analysis gives us a strong argument for suggesting that we are indeed dealing with two seemingly different groups which cluster into two linguistic patterns. We note in the figure below the extent to which membership in the two linguistic groups coincides with membership in the two socioeconomic strata, as described in Chapter III.

TABLE 7

TWO CLUSTERS (LINGUISTIC PATTERN I AND LINGUISTIC PATTERN II) WITH SOCIOECONOMIC LEVEL OF SCHOOL COMMUNITY INDICATED

Linguistic Pattern I	Socioeconomic Level	Linguistic Pattern II	Socioeconomic Level
Subject 1	A	Subject 3	B
2	A	5	B
4	A	6	A
8	A	7	A
11	A	9	B
12	A	10	B
17	A	13	A
19	B	14	A
20	A	15	A
		16	B
		18	B

It is clear from this representation that a majority of the principals from areas of low socioeconomic level (B) cluster into Linguistic Pattern II, while Linguistic Pattern I is primarily composed of principals from areas of high socioeconomic level.

Principals from the low socioeconomic communities form a more homogeneous group since only one of their members (subject 19) clusters with the principals of the high socioeconomic level (A). We have a clear majority (61.5 per cent)of high socioeconomic level community principals in Linguistic Pattern I, and an impressive 85.5 per cent of the low socioeconomic area principals in Linguistic Pattern II. This finding, therefore tends to reinforce our previous conclusions in Chapter III, where on the basis of a nonverbal instrument (the LBDQ) we found that there apparently are differences--which may extend to speech patterns--among administrators and that these differences tend to suggest a socioeconomic geographic dichotomy.

Of particular interest are the cross-overs, for example, subject 19, the lone principal from a low socioeconomic community to cluster with Linguistic Type I subjects and subjects 6, 7, 13, 14 and 15, the five high socioeconomic level community subjects who appear to have greater linguistic affinity with subjects in Linguistic Type II, which contains the large concentration of principals from lower socioeconomic level schools.

Interpretation of Cluster Analysis Two: Subjects Grouped According to Personal History Variables

As input for the second application of cluster analysis, data from the Background Information Form described in the previous chapter were submitted to analysis. Information gathered by means of this questionnaire was coded into 140 separate items. By observation it became obvious that only on 28 items did the information on each of the 20 subjects yield enough to be a factor in the variability among subjects. The items which follow are those which were selected as input for the second cluster analysis:

Personal Background:

Age
Father's Educational Level
Mother's Educational Level
Father's Occupation at Time of Subject's Graduation from High School
Older Siblings
Younger Siblings
Who Did Most Talking at Dinner Table when Subject was a Child
Who Subject Feels Most Influenced his Development in Area of Verbal Behavior
Who Subject Feels Most Influenced Him to Become an Educator
Whether the Subject Made any Direct Efforts to Improve his Vocabulary
The Amount of Non-Professional Reading which Subject Currently Does
Whether the Subject has Travelled
Religious Influences which the Subject has Mentioned

Educational Background

Level of Education Attained
Whether Subject has a Degree in Educational Administration
Subject in Which Best Grades in College were Received

Professional Background

Total Number of Years in the Educational Profession
Total Number of Years in the Principalship
Number of Years in the Present Principalship
Number of Different Educational Posts Held
Subject's Aspirations for the Superintendency
Number of Memberships in Professional Organizations
Number of Memberships in Administrative Organizations
Number of Total Memberships
Subject's Total Annual Salary
Characteristic which Subject Prefers in Superordinates
Characteristic to which Subject Attributes his Own Success
Subject's Status in Present School

The aim here was to see whether there were any overall similarities across the 20 profiles of observations. If we could show that two groups would emerge with subjects falling into Group 1 resembling each other more closely than subjects falling into Group 2, we would at least be able to claim that there were overall differences between the subjects based upon information concerning their sociocultural backgrounds, even if we could not measure the magnitude of those differences.

The following two distinct groups emerged from the second application of the cluster analysis program.

TABLE 8

TWO CLUSTER GROUPS BASED ON PERSONAL HISTORY VARIABLES OF PRINCIPALS

Group 1	Group 2
1	3
2	6
4	7
5	9
8	10
12	11
13	15
14	16
17	18
20	19

Analysis of Personal History Variables Utilized in Cluster Analysis

In trying to determine differences between the two groups of administrators on the basis of personal history variables, an analysis was made of the three kinds of variables employed: personal background, educational, and professional background variables.

Personal Background Variables

Averages for the 13 variables utilized from the subjects' personal background are indicated below:

TABLE 9

PERSONAL BACKGROUND VARIABLES

	Group 1	Group 2
Age	44.9	33.5
Father's Educational Level		
H.S. Graduation or less	60%	50%
Some College - M.A.+	40%	50%
Mother's Educational Level		
H.S. Graduation or less	70%	70%
Some College - M.A.	30%	30%
Father's Occupation		
Unskilled Workers	30%	None
Skilled Craftsmen	20%	20%
Business Executives	10%	10%
Owners of Small Businesses	10%	50%
Professional Educators	20%	10%
Other Professionals	10%	10%
Older Siblings	1.2	1.5
Younger Siblings	1.4	.7
Who Participated in Dinner Conversation during Childhood		
Shared by Family	70%	50%
Parent-Centered	30%	50%

TABLE 9

PERSONAL BACKGROUND VARIABLES

	Group 1	Group 2
Person who Most Influenced Subject's Verbal Behavior		
Mother	10%	10%
Wife	None	10%
Parents	30%	20%
Teacher	20%	40%
Colleague	40%	None
Subject Himself	None	20%
Person who Most Influenced Subject to become an Educator		
Teacher	60%	40%
Family Members in Education	30%	30%
Friend in Education	None	10%
Service Motive	10%	None
Self-Initiated	None	20%
Efforts to Improve Vocabulary		
Personal Awareness	40%	40%
Books, Magazines, Word Lists	20%	40%
Indirect Efforts, e.g. Drama Course, Teacher Efforts	20%	10%
None	20%	10%
Non-Professional Reading Subject Currently Does		
Little	10%	30%
More than Most Professionals	30%	30%
Moderate Amount	60%	40%
Whether Subject has Travelled		
Travel Abroad: Military or Pleasure	40%	10%
U. S. as child or adult	60%	50%
Little Travel as Child or Adult	None	10%
Travel Abroad: As Principal or Teacher for Extended Period	None	30%
Religious Influences		
Active in Church Activities Now	10%	30%
Church Important as Child	30%	30%
Active in Church Activities Both as Child and Adult	40%	20%
No mention	20%	20%

TABLE 10

EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND VARIABLES

	Group 1	Group 2
Educational Level Attained by Subject		
M.A. Only	None	10%
M.A. + 16-36 Hours	60%	30%
M.A. + 15	30%	50%
D.Ed.	10%	10%
Degree in Educational Administration		
Courses Only	20%	30%
M.A.	70%	60%
D.Ed.	10%	10%
Best Grades Received in College		
Social Sciences	50%	30%
Physical Sciences	10%	40%
Education	40%	20%
Physical Education	None	10%

Professional Background Variables

Information concerning the principal's professional background is reported below.

TABLE 11

PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND VARIABLES

	Group 1	Group 2
Years in Educational Profession	19.4	8.1
Years in Principalship	13.1	2.6
Years in Present Principalship	9.2	1.4
Different Educational Posts Held	4.9	4.9

TABLE 11

PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND VARIABLES

	Group 1	Group 2
Aspirations for Superintendency		
Definitely Not	60%	10%
Maybe	30%	50%
Certainly	10%	40%
Membership in Professional Educational Organizations	3.6	4.1
Memberships in Administrative Organizations	3.1	1.7
Total Memberships	6.7	5.8
Total Annual Salary		
Less than $9,000	None	10%
$9,000 - $10,999	None	50%
$11,000 - $12,999	10%	10%
$13,000 - $14,999	70%	30%
$17,000 - $18,999	20%	None
Characteristic Subject Prefers in Superordinates		
Showing Consideration for Other Organization Members	50%	60%
Structuring Organization to Get Job Done	40%	30%
Both of These	10%	10%
Characteristic to which Subject Attributes his Own Success		
Showing Consideration for Other Organization Members	80%	40%
Showing Consideration and Ability to Get Along with Superordinates (Supervisors and Central Office Staff)	20%	40%
Skill and Experience	None	20%
Subject's Status in Present School		
Principal More than 10 Years	30%	None
Principal 10 Years or Less	70%	100%*

*50% of these principals are in this school for the first year.

Personal Background Variables

In looking for discriminating factors among the personal background variables, we find that among the many similarities between the two groups, several important differences do emerge, namely those of age,[1] father's occupation, and travel abroad. While the tables suggest other differences, these are the notable ones. The average age of principals in Group 1 is 44.9, while the average age of those in Group 2 is 33.5. There is an impressive number of small business owners among the fathers of Group 2 principals. The fathers of Group 2 principals are slightly better educated than the fathers of Group 1 principals.

Among the fathers of Group 1 principals there are 30 per cent unskilled workers, in contrast to no unskilled workers among the fathers of Group 2 principals. As for professional types among fathers, Group 1 principals have a slight lead, with 30 per cent, as opposed to 20 per cent.

One interesting difference occurs in the travel experience of the principals. Principals in Group 1 who have travelled abroad (40%) have done so in order to fulfill obligations in the armed services, primarily during World War II. Only one of the Group 2 principals mentioned being abroad on a military commitment, while 30 per cent mentioned traveling abroad by choice for professional reasons. Group 2 principals sought opportunities to stay abroad for year-long assignments either as teachers or as principals of schools, in Europe or North Africa.

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[1] It is quite clear that the age variable explains a good deal of the difference between the two samples. Also, a process of selection has taken place in which the upward mobile people in the older age bracket have been lost to our sample, often no doubt, through promotion. We are therefore studying two populations who have fared quite differently. The older principals from schools located in communities of low socioeconomic level are those who have been passed by in numerous selections, while the principals from schools located in communities of high socioeconomic level are a younger, more successful cadre of individuals.

Educational Background Variables

Twice as many of the Group 1 principals have earned the master's degree plus 16-36 hours. This may be explained on the basis of promotional credits earned during longer years of service in the profession. Although Group 1 principals have continued to keep abreast of current educational practices by taking continuing courses, on the average, Group 2 principals, as expected, have had the more recent educational experience. For both types of principals the pattern is to obtain the M.A. in administration.

Ninety per cent of the Group 1 principals earned their best grades in Social Sciences or Education, while 40 per cent of the Group 2 principals earned their best grades in the Physical Sciences, the other 60 per cent having been received in Social Sciences, Physical Education, or Education.

Professional Background Variables

Some of the similarities among the professional background variables are just as impressive as the dissimilarities. Bearing in mind the age difference observed in the personal background analysis, we are not surprised at the differences observed in variables, such as Years in the Educational Profession, Years in the Present Principalship, and Aspirations for the Superintendency. However, we note that both groups of principals have held the same number of different educational posts, even though the Group 2 principals have less than half as many years of experience in the profession.

The Group 2 principals are a very mobile group. While Group 1 principals have spent approximately 42 per cent of their professional lives in the principalship, Group 2 principals have already spent 32 per cent of their professional lives in the principalship.

We note also that twice as many of the Group 2 principals thought that their own success was attributed to both showing consideration to other organization members and also getting along with superordinates. This factor suggests a linkage with the superintendency aspirations of the two groups. Of the Group 1 principals, 60 per cent had closed off any ambition for the superintendency, and only 10 per cent had indicated any certainty about such an aspiration. Among the Group 2 principals, only 10 per cent would not consider such aspirations, as opposed to 40 per cent who admitted outright to having abiding aspirations for this post.

Similarly, in a study of promotable administrators, Powers identified personal variables which related to "promotability." According to his data, upward-mobiles or "promotables" among assistant principals tended to be younger men.[1] This coincides with our finding concerning Group 2 principals. Responses to questions about reasons for non-mobility indicated that the majority of non-mobile ("non-promotable") assistant principals in his sample were similar to reasons given by the Group 1 subjects in this study for not desiring the superintendency. Both samples viewed the role as either too disruptive of established personal ties with present reference groups or as too demanding in terms of responsibilities, time, and routines.[1]

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[1] Thomas E. Powers, "Administrative Behavior and Factors Related to Upward Mobility," (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Dept. of Education, University of Chicago, 1966), p. 25.

We note at this point that one Group 1 principal had resigned from a previous superintendency in order to return to the principalship. In another case, the principal is presently also the superintendent of his district. The reason most often cited by the principalship-bound principal is that the role cuts one off too much from day-to-day contact with teachers and pupils, a type of interaction which is significant to him. The Group 2 principal who maintained that he was not interested in the superintendency indicated he is not yet completely committed to education as a profession.

It is possible that there is a relationship between these variables and total annual salary. The Group 2 principals are operating primarily in impoverished school districts beset with a variety of problems, problems of teacher militancy, finance, race, and overcrowded conditions. There is much teacher and pupil turnover. Salaries are low and principals seek to improve their lot either by moving to a better school within the district or to schools outside of the district, either as superintendents, or as principals.

While we had anticipated finding some discriminating variables in our questionnaire which would have related differences in speech to obvious sociocultural and socioeconomic differences among the personal backgrounds of the two groups of principals, we have encountered in this analysis suggestions that we may have to look toward differences outside of the men in order to answer our questions concerning differences in speech patterns. May we offer at this point a suggestion made by Martin Joos[1] and other linguists, that we speak in different registers, depending upon the circumstances in which we find ourselves. The problems confronted by Group 2 principals may indeed be such as to require a different kind of speech mediation.

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[1] _Ibid._, p. 107.

Additional Comparisons

Our next step was to compare subjects in each of the two personal history groupings with the socioeconomic level of their school communities. This is indicated in the table which follows.

TABLE 12

TWO CLUSTER GROUPS BASED ON PERSONAL HISTORY VARIABLES OF PRINCIPAL COMPARED WITH SOCIOECONOMIC LEVEL OF PRINCIPAL'S SCHOOL COMMUNITY

Group 1	Socioeconomic Level	Group 2	Socioeconomic Level
Subject 1	A	Subject 3	B
2	A	6	A
4	A	7	A
5	B	9	B
8	A	10	B
12	A	11	A
13	A	15	A
14	A	16	B
17	A	18	B
20	A	19	B

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[1] Martin Joos, The Five Clocks (Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University Research Center in Anthropology, Folklore, and Linguistics), 1962.

We find that 69.2 per cent of the Level A subjects fall into Personal History Group 1 and 85.7 per cent of the Level B subjects fall into Personal History Group 2. This particular cluster analysis suggests that subjects can be partitioned into two groups reflecting personal history distinctions with the majority of one group being principals of socioeconomic Level A schools and the majority of the other being principals of socioeconomic Level B schools.

Comparison of Results of Both Cluster Analyses

It is also of interest to juxtopose the findings of this second cluster analysis with those of the first. The following figure points up the grouping similarities between Cluster Analysis One (Linguistic Patterns) and Cluster Analysis Two (Personal History Variables):

TABLE 13

COMPARISON BETWEEN PERSONAL HISTORY VARIABLES GROUPS 1 AND 2 AND MEMBERSHIP IN LINGUISTIC PATTERN GROUPS I OR II

Personal Background Group 1 Membership	Linguistic Pattern	Personal Background Group 2 Membership	Linguistic Pattern
Subject 1	LI	Subject 3	LII
2	LI	6	LII
4	LI	7	LII
5	LII	9	LII
8	LI	10	LII
12	LI	11	LI
13	LII	15	LII
14	LII	16	LII
17	LI	18	LII
20	LI	19	LI

The juxtaposition of linguistic pattern membership with personal history group membership brings to light the fact that in general the subjects tend to employ Linguistic Pattern I in speaking if their personal background variables characterize them as Group 1 members and that they tend to employ Linguistic Pattern II in speaking if they are Group 2 in personal history membership. Seventy per cent of the members of Personal Background Variables Group 1 speak language characteristic of Linguistic Pattern I (three exceptions are subjects 5, 13, and 14). As for Personal Background Variables Group 2, all but subjects 11 and 19 (80 per cent) speak the expected Linguistic Pattern II.

Comparison of Cluster Analyses Results with Socioeconomic Level of Principal's School Community

In an attempt to get some meaning out of the comparison between the two cluster analyses, and taking into consideration socioeconomic level of school community, which is in keeping with one of the basic hypotheses underlying this study (Chapter II), the following table was developed:

TABLE 14

COMPARISON BETWEEN LINGUISTIC PATTERN, GROUPING BY PERSONAL HISTORY VARIABLES, AND SOCIOECONOMIC LEVEL OF SCHOOL COMMUNITY

Subject	Linguistic Pattern	Personal History Group	Socioeconomic Level of School
1	I	1	A
2	I	1	A
3	II	2	B
4	I	1	A
5	II	1	B
6	II	2	A
7	II	2	A
8	I	1	A

TABLE 14

COMPARISON BETWEEN LINGUISTIC PATTERN, GROUPING
BY PERSONAL HISTORY VARIABLES,
AND SOCIOECONOMIC LEVEL OF SCHOOL COMMUNITY

Subject	Linguistic Pattern	Personal History Group	Socioeconomic Level of School
9	II	2	B
10	II	2	B
11	I	2	A
12	I	1	A
13	II	1	A
14	II	1	A
15	II	2	A
16	II	2	B
17	I	1	A
18	II	2	B
19	I	2	B
20	I	1	A

The "Hard Core" Membership

If we were to define as Type I principals the speakers of Linguistic Pattern I who also are characterized by Group 1 personal background variables, it becomes clear that seven subjects fall into the pattern: subjects 1, 2, 4, 8, 12, 17, and 20. We shall label these our hard core Type I principals. Similarly, subjects who fall into Linguistic Pattern II and Personal Background Variable Group 2 will be characterized as hard core Type II principals. These subjects are clearly eight, namely subjects 3, 6, 7, 9, 10, 15, 16, and 18. The data from these subjects showed great affinity across the three cluster analyses on language variables as well as on the personal history variables cluster analysis.

Thus in terms of commonalities on both the linguistic pattern cluster analysis and the personal history cluster analysis our findings suggest that:

(1) A large percentage of subjects speaking Linguistic Pattern I (88.8 per cent) may be found in schools of high socioeconomic level and a large percentage of principals speaking Linguistic Pattern II (54.5 per cent) may be found in schools of low socioeconomic level:

(2) Subjects falling into Personal Background Variables Group 1 (90 per cent) tend to be principals of schools located in high socioeconomic level areas and those in Personal Background Variables Group 2 (60 percent) tend to be principals of schools located in low socioeconomic level areas.

We shall see, as illustrated by the next table, to what extent we can confirm our expectations that principals similar on Linguistic Pattern and Personal Background Variables actually are administering schools of high socioeconomic or low socioeconomic level respectively. In so doing, we shall highlight the hard core members and also indicate subjects who fail to qualify as 'hard core' members of either group because they cross over into opposite patterns on one or another of the two qualifying variables. These are our mavericks.

TABLE 15

EXPECTED AND ACTUAL SOCIOECONOMIC LEVEL OF SCHOOL COMMUNITY BASED UPON LINGUISTIC PATTERN MEMBERSHIP AND PERSONAL HISTORY VARIABLE GROUP MEMBERSHIP OF PRINCIPALS

Subject	Linguistic Pattern (I or II) and Personal History Variable Group (1 or 2) Membership	Socioeconomic Level of School Community	
		Expected	Actual
1	I - 1	A	A
2	I - 1	A	A
3	II - 2	B	B
4	I - 1	A	A
5	II - 1	---	B
6	II - 2	B	A
7	II - 2	B	A
8	I - 1	A	A
9	II - 2	B	B

TABLE 15

EXPECTED AND ACTUAL SOCIOECONOMIC LEVEL OF SCHOOL COMMUNITY BASED UPON LINGUISTIC PATTERN MEMBERSHIP AND PERSONAL HISTORY VARIABLE GROUP MEMBERSHIP OF PRINCIPALS

Subject	Linguistic Pattern (I or II) and Personal History Variable Group (1 or 2) Membership	Socioeconomic Level of School Community	
		Expected	Actual
10	II - 2	B	B
11	I - 2	---	A
12	I - 1	A	A
13	II - 1	---	A
14	II - 1	---	A
15	II - 2	B	A
16	II - 2	B	B
17	I - 1	A	A
18	II - 2	B	B
19	I - 2	---	B
20	I - 1	A	A

As the preceding table suggests, in 12 of the 15 cases of subjects sharing Linguistic Pattern and Personal History Variables it was possible to predict socioeconomic level of school community. For subjects 6, 7, and 15 it was not possible to make this prediction. Therefore, we have consigned these principals to a maverick group discussed in the following section. Two other types of mavericks are also discussed below, (1) those who speak the appropriate Linguistic Pattern for the community in which they are principals but who have disparate personal backgrounds (subjects 5 and 11), and (2) those who share the personal history variables of the other principals in similar socioeconomic level communities, but who fail to speak the same Linguistic Pattern (subjects 13, 14, and 19).

The Mavericks

If we were to consider Linguistic Pattern I as the typical speaking pattern of principals in affluent communities, and Linguistic Pattern II as the typical speaking pattern of principals in lower socioeconomic level school communities, we might characterize our three types of mavericks, as follows:

Type I	
The Misplaced Maverick	Subjects 6, 7, and 15, who share the personal background variables of Group 2 and speak Linguistic Pattern II but who are located in affluent type school districts.
Type II	
The Linguistically Adaptable Maverick	Subjects 5 and 11, who speak the appropriate pattern for the location in which they find themselves but who have disparate personal background variables.
Type III	
The Inconsistent Maverick	Subjects 13, 14, and 19, who share the personal background variables typical of the principals in their type of district but who use the opposite linguistic pattern in their speech.

The Linguistically Adaptable Maverick

As his title indicates, this type of maverick principal (subjects 5 and 11) utilizes in his speech the same linguistic patterns as his colleagues in school districts ofsimilar socioeconomic level. Since it is the expected pattern for his school, he ought not to experience any communication difficulties due to the lexical content of his language. He differs simply in personal history variables.

The Misplaced Maverick and The Inconsistent Maverick

We would imagine that the Misplaced Mavericks (subjects 6, 7, and 15) and the Inconsistent Mavericks (subjects 13, 14, and 19) would experience some difficulty in communicating with teachers and other reference groups connected with their operations in school, since they are using linguistic patterns which differ from those which principals in similar school communities characteristically employ.

The present study utilizes the Halpin and Schutz frameworks as bases for analysis of variance and sentence retrieval. Yet two groups of principals who use distinct language patterns, Linguistic Pattern I and Linguistic Pattern II respectively, emerged from our cluster analysis using language variables. In seeking to find answers to our questions concerning the Misplaced Mavericks and the Inconsistent Mavericks, Linguistic Patterns I and II would have to be used as bases for statistical and verbal analysis. We shall have to deal with this issue in a subsequent work.

Summary

This chapter has provided insights into the language usage of our principals and the linkages between language usage and certain personal background variables.

Our cluster analysis utilizing the language scores showed that our principals do divide themselves into two rather distinct groups which speak differently from each other.

We also found that, in general, principals who employ Linguistic Pattern I in speaking have similar personal background variables, and that principals who employ Linguistic Pattern II have similar personal background variables.

As for linkages between language and socioeconomic level of school community, a large percentage of subjects speaking Linguistic Pattern I may be found in schools of high socioeconomic level, whereas, generally, principals speaking Linguistic Pattern II are found in schools of low socioeconomic level communities.

Now that we have reviewed the findings of our two cluster analyses programs, we are ready to move ahead with an analysis of the language which the principals actually use in their everyday conversation with teachers. This we propose to do in Chapter V. Our task in the coming chapter will be twofold, namely (1) to review the findings of the analysis of variance program which was utilized in studying contrasts of verbal scores with non-verbal dimensions, and (2) to present the composite dialogues developed from the statements made by the principals in our sample.

CHAPTER V

VERBAL DIMENSIONS OF ADMINISTRATIVE PERFORMANCE: COMPOSITE DIALOGUES BASED ON SIGNIFICANTLY DISCRIMINATING LANGUAGE CATEGORIES

It has been emphasized in earlier chapters that the major objective of this research is to identify relationships which exist between linguistic factors and certain non-linguistic variables. These non-linguistic variables include measures of teacher perceptions of administrative performance along the Halpin dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration, and measures of the interpersonal needs of administrators along the dimensions of the Schutz FIRO-B instrument. Accordingly, the fundamental concern in the presentation of the principal findings is the analysis of the language data, with emphasis on the study of patterns of occurrence of particular language categories. We hope to gain further knowledge about the differences in language which would discriminate principals along their scores on the indicated nonverbal instruments.

Hypotheses relating to these measures were presented in Chapter II. In order to examine these hypotheses it is necessary to determine how and to what extent the independent variables explain or predict the responses of the subjects represented in the dependent variables or language categories.

Richness of the Verbal Data

A total of 60 conversations or subsets of verbal data were collected, which represented three five-minute segments of conversation for each principal, or a total of 55,569 spoken words, used in 4,203 sentences. Of these 55,569 words all but 5,730 were identified in the language categories utilized in the research.

The following figures give some idea of the richness of the verbal data with which we are dealing:

Average number of sentences per conversation	70
Average number of sentences per subject	210
Average number of words per conversation	926
Average number of words per subject	2,778

In addition to the words that were located in the 27 language categories utilized in the research, 5,730 words were not identified when they were searched for in the categories. These words are registered as "workspace" that is unused, and they are assigned to a "residual" list for subsequent review. These residuals are discussed in a later section of this chapter.

The Statistical Analysis

Preparation of the Verbal Material for Statistical Analysis

In Chapter III the various steps involved in using the General Inquirer computer-based system for content analysis were described. We refer again to the sentence tagging phase of the program. In accomplishing this phase of processing, the General Inquirer tagging program processes each word of text, referencing information on all words within each sentence. When words are encountered which are entry words in the language categories utilized in this research, tags are assigned to the sentence according to the various categories in which its words have membership. To insure that the computer does not mis-tag the data, a hand check is made.

When the tagging is completed, each sentence is printed out in order of occurrence and by document number with its associated tags. The number of sentences in which a tag was assigned is tallied, tallies being made both as raw frequencies representing the absolute frequency of occurrence of tags within each conversation, and also as adjusted percentages representing the relative frequency of occurrence of tags within each conversation. This percentage frequency or index score is determined by dividing the raw tally by the total number of sentences in the conversation. Such percentage frequencies permit adjusting for the varying lengths of the conversations. They also serve to insure against erroneous inferences based on the accumulation of tags in only one or a few responses.

In this research the tag tallies which were derived were based on the conversational segment as the basic unit of analysis. The quantitative measure used was the percentage of occurrence of a language category for each of the 60 principal conversations (three per subject). Percentages of sentences containing words in each of the 27 language categories form the basic data of all further analysis.

In addition to printing out the percentage frequencies in table format, summary cards are punched giving the total percentage frequencies for each language category. These summary cards are principally designed as input to various statistical programs, including the analysis of variance program which is utilized in this research and which is described in the following section.

Multivariate Analysis of Variance

When the dependent variable can be assumed to be distributed normally we are able to draw on multivariate analysis of variance techniques. However, the most critical assumption in the use of analysis of variance is that of homogeneity of variance, and the results of a number of other studies reveal that homogeneity of variance of tag tally scores across groups is not the rule when dealing with language variables.[1] In order to meet the requirement of multivariate normality and to stabilize and roughly make the variances across conversational segments homogeneous, the percentage frequencies on the language variables were transformed by the square root transformation.

The MESA 97 Program

The statistical program chosen for analyzing the differences among the means of the language category percentage scores was that of analysis of variance as described in Bock and Haggard.[2] MESA 97, (Univariate and Multivariate Analysis and Covariance) a computer program for the 7094 computer produced all the analyses.

The punched output of percentage scores on the 27 language categories relevant to this study was subjected to the MESA 97 program, using a two-way design for the Halpin analysis, and a one-way design for the six analyses related to the FIRO-B dimensions.

In the analysis each individual observation or percentage score was treated as a separate datum, so that with three data per each of 20 subjects a total of 60 observations could be entered into the analysis, allowing for more degrees of freedom[1] and permitting us to look at all of the 27 language categories described in Chapter IV.

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[1] Stone, et al., p. 232.

[2] R. Darrell Bock and Ernest A. Haggard, "The Use of Multivariate Analysis of Variance in Behavioral Research," Handbook of Measurement and Assessment in Behavioral Sciences. ed. by D. K. Whitla (Reading, Mass.: Addison-Wesley, 1968), pp. 100-42.

Due to the nonorthogonal design, reordering of effects would have altered the significance level of the multivariate F for Initiating Structure. However, the degree of unbalance was insufficient to alter the decision to test the univariate significance of the individual language categories.

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[1] Note re Statistical Procedure. Some statistical problems were encountered which proved to be insurmountable. While the original study design provided only 20 cases to be studied, the theoretical analysis of verbal categories led to the identification of 27 independent variables. Clearly, the N of the study did not provide enough degrees of freedom for the analysis which was needed.

A number of alternatives for analysis were considered. For example, (1) we could have averaged the three speech samples together, using 20 degrees of freedom, or (2) we could have utilized a nested design using 60 degrees of freedom.

In terms of alternative 1, we did not feel that we could reduce the degrees of freedom by taking averages of the three speech samples. We did feel that by using three different speech occasions we would have a more realistic sample of the subjects' speech.

Concerning alternative 2, analysis of the four-way nested analysis of variance seemed to be more complex than was necessary in terms of the intent of this study. This was so because our primary concern was to determine which language categories were the most important. A fairly good notion of this could be attained just by looking at the means themselves. The additional information from the nested design analysis concerning the effects of differences between administrators within cells was not relevant to the hypotheses.

The procedure used was to consider three samples of verbal behavior (representing three dyadic interactional settings) as distinct observations, rather than as repeated observations of the same phenomenon. This procedure led to biased F-ratios which however would not be likely to change the level of significance of the variables. Thus, a sample of 60 degrees of freedom was constructed and tested. This researcher recognizes the source of bias represented in this procedure.

A subsequent reanalysis using the nested or hierarchical model (See K. A. Brownlee, Statistical Theory and Methodology, New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1965, pp. 482-89 and 530-43) confirmed the results of the previous analysis for almost all of the variables. Four variables out of 54 which were checked were added to the list of significant additional cases, in order to further test the hypotheses considered in this study. We are grateful to Professor Robert Rippey for his assistance with this and other statistical problems.

Seven separate analyses were performed, one for each of the independent variables utilized in the research. The object of these analyses was to test for significant differences between various units of the data. Changes in the frequencies with which particular language tags are used by different groups of subjects indicate to the investigator differences which can be explored in more detail. The statistical program used, the MESA 97, tested whether these differences were significant.

After testing for significant differences, the retrieval program was used in checking for qualitative differences between the language usage of groups of subjects. Retrievals of sentences demonstrates the extent to which such differences can be observed in the language which is actually used by the principals. Only where the probability that the observed discrepancies should have arisen by chance is very small, less than .05, will we decide that the discrepancies are significant and proceed to interpret or search for reasons for such differences.

Results of the Analysis of Variance: Language Categories Showing Statistically Significant Differences between Subjects by Scores on the Halpin and Schutz Dimensions

In addition to the four overall tests of hypotheses which yield significant results 14 of the 27 categories (tests of significance) also yield significant results for one or more of the effects. In total, these 14 tags yield significant results 22 times.

The following tables show the results of the 7 analyses which were run with category names and square roots of the means, F-Ratios beyond the .05 level, and significance levels of the F-tests.

TABLE 16

SQUARE ROOTS OF MEANS, F-RATIOS, AND SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS FOR TWO LANGUAGE CATEGORIES AND TWO DEGREES OF INITIATING STRUCTURE

Multivariate F = 2.05 Overall Probability = <.0288				
Category	High Initiating Structure (n = 33)[1]	Low Initiating Structure (n = 27)	F-Ratio	Significance Level
ATTEMPT	1.79	1.13	6.17	<.0160
SELF	4.99	5.54	6.73	<.0121

Table 16 reveals that principals are discriminated along the Initiating Structure dimension at the <.0288 level of significance. There were two discriminating categories, ATTEMPT and SELF.

From the nested reanalysis of the data on this dimension, as reported in the footnote on page 115, we learned that principals perceived as being low in Initiating Structure speak more like each other than do principals perceived as being high in Initiating Structure. Four additional categories, UNDERSTATE, SIGN-STRONG, WORK, and AROUSAL, proved to be significant discriminators along this dimension.

TABLE 17

SQUARE ROOTS OF MEANS, F-RATIOS, AND SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS FOR EIGHT LANGUAGE CATEGORIES AND TWO DEGREES OF CONSIDERATION

Multivariate F = 1.93 Overall Probability = <.0416				
Category	High Consideration (n = 33)	Low Consideration (n = 27)	F-Ratio	Significance Level
ACADEMIC	4.82	5.78	8.26	<.0058
COMMUNICATE	3.66	4.40	8.33	<.0056
ARTISTIC	.99	3.17	5.01	<.0292
OUGHT	3.23	3.72	3.89	<.0536
SIGN-STRONG	4.45	5.01	5.34	<.0246
GUIDE	2.96	3.58	4.96	<.0300
LEGAL	1.12	1.98	10.90	<.0017
HIGHER-STATUS	2.21	3.42	13.61	<.0006

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[1] In this and subsequent tables number of observations refers to three conversational segments per subject.

Table 17 indicates that for Halpin's Consideration dimension eight of the 27 language categories are useful in discriminating principals perceived as being high in Consideration from those perceived as being low in Consideration.

TABLE 18

SQUARE ROOTS OF MEANS, F-RATIOS, AND SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS FOR FOUR LANGUAGE CATEGORIES AND TWO DEGREES OF INCLUSION WANTED

Multivariate F = 2.24
Overall Probability = $<.0149$

Category	High Inclusion Wanted (n = 18)	Low Inclusion Wanted (n = 42)	F-Ratio	Significance Level
SELVES	3.65	4.70	9.14	$<.0038$
ARTISTIC	.89	1.48	4.58	$<.0366$
ACADEMIC	4.64	5.59	7.72	$<.0074$
THOUGHT-FORM	2.37	3.03	4.11	$<.0474$

A study of the table exemplifying results of the analysis run on the Inclusion Wanted dimension shows that four language categories proved to be significant discriminators of High and Low Inclusion Wanted principals. These were the SELVES, ARTISTIC, ACADEMIC, and THOUGHT-FORM categories.

TABLE 19

SQUARE ROOTS OF MEANS, F-RATIOS, AND SIGNIFICANCE LEVELS FOR EIGHT LANGUAGE CATEGORIES AND TWO DEGREES OF CONTROL WANTED

Multivariate F = 1.78
Overall Probability = $<.0594$

Category	High Control Wanted (n = 36)	Low Control Wanted (n = 24)	F-Ratio	Significance Level
ACADEMIC	5.00	5.76	5.78	$<.0195$
UNDERSTATE	4.83	5.33	4.28	$<.0431$
LEGAL	1.23	1.96	7.61	$<.0078$
COMMUNICATE	3.76	4.39	5.95	$<.0179$
SIGN-STRONG	4.47	5.07	6.05	$<.0170$
OUGHT	3.21	3.94	10.42	$<.0021$
APPROACH	2.56	3.04	5.06	$<.0284$
SELVES	4.08	4.85	5.13	$<.0273$

As is shown in Table 19, eight of the language categories proved to be useful in discriminating high scoring principals from low scoring principals on Control Wanted.

Other statistical analyses did not produce significant multivariate F ratios or overall probability levels. Among these are the Initiating Structure and Consideration interaction effect, and the four remaining FIRO dimensions. Among the latter, only the Control Expressed dimension comes close to a .05 significance level. Since none of these dimensions proved to be a significant discriminator of high and low scoring principals, no report is being made of individual language categories which were included in the analyses.

TABLE 20

REPORT OF ANALYSES WHICH DID NOT PRODUCE SIGNIFICANT RESULTS

Analysis	Multivariate F	Significance Level
Interaction Structure X Consideration	1.20	.3160
Inclusion Expressed	.91	.5903
Control Expressed	1.73	.0692
Affection Expressed	1.23	.2821
Affection Wanted	.77	.7569

Whereas the statistical analyses presented in Tables 16 through 19 have served to point up that there are significant quantitative differences in the ways in which subgroups of the sample of principals use language, this is only the point of departure for the verbal analysis. In the following section we will show how the retrieval program of the General Inquirer System is put to the service of an in-depth verbal analysis of the principals' utterances.

The Retrieval Program

Using as a starting point the relative emphasis which principals gave to words in different language categories, as determined by the statistical program, we shall now move to considering the way in which they actually used language in their conversations with teachers. In order to carry out this phase of the research, the retrieval function of the General Inquirer program was utilized.

It is the retrieval program which is the basis for much of the General Inquirer's exploratory power.[1] The objects of retrieval are sentences, the retrieval program being used to locate or "retrieve" sentences. The retrieval program reads 'questions' or retrieval specifications written by the researcher and then searches the tagged text for sentences that match the retrieval specifications. For example, one of the 'retrieval questions' utilized was +68 = P since category 68 (HIGHER-STATUS) was a significant discriminator of the subjects on the Consideration dimension. The retrieval program searched all of the tagged text for the HIGHER-STATUS category, as specified. Whenever the specification matched the question, the category with its identification number was printed out for further examination. Printout at this point is organized by retrieval questions rather than by conversation. For each significant language category a listing was produced of all sentences in which that category occurred. These were then inspected for a more accurate description of the way in which that particular category was being used in this particular set of data.

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[1] Stone, et al., The General Inquirer, p. 107.

The most frequent use of retrieval procedures is the in-depth exploration of data in order to determine which specific meaning units contribute to tag tally counts, to investigate possible mistagging of meaning units, and to collect examples and ideas about the data in the context of sentences. It is an effort to truly understand the data at hand by letting the data speak for itself. The object is to search for meaningful differences between sub-units of outputs and to see whether these differences point to any new insights which are still consistent with the nonverbal behavior patterns of the subjects. In other words, we are looking at the problem with the help of an outside criterion to verify whether the results of

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[1] Stone _et al._, _The General Inquirer_, p. 107.

this analysis are congruent with results obtained on nonverbal instruments.

It is important to study retrievals carefully in order to obtain a real understanding of the meaning of category usage. Rather than relying on the tag tally as our sole source of information, the solution is to make a thorough study of the statements extracted from the conversations by the retrieval program.

Exploring the Language Content of the Principals' Conversations

Procedures for Verbal Analysis

Even though statistical differences between subgroups have been discovered through our analysis of variance program, mere reliance on these scores is not sufficient to establish an acceptable interpretation of the meaning of the differences. In seeking to understand what our data is saying, we will work through a series of questions:

(1) Which are the most frequently occurring entry words?

(2) Which subgroup had more references to these entry words?

(3) Are any words uniquely the property of one subgroup?

(4) How are the words used?

In answering these questions a careful analysis will be made of contextual usage. The basis for all decisions concerning differences between the two groups will be made according to the way in which words are used in context, for it is only by a study of the context surrounding the entry word that level of meaning can be assessed and any persistent response patterns determined.

Validation of Verbal Analyses

The researcher's verbal analyses of the composite dialogues were subjected to the scrutiny of two language professors with a background in linguistics and an elementary school principal. The results of the researcher's analyses were substantiated by this panel of judges on 95.5 per cent of the composite dialogues developed from the retrieved language categories.

The Composite Dialogues

Retrieved statements are used in developing the composite dialogues which are presented in the remaining section of this chapter. Although these composite dialogues contain only a portion of the total output retrieved, they are representative of all of the statements made by our sample of principals and reflect the entire output for each category. As was indicated on page 74 statements are retrieved from principals' conversations concerning pupil promotions and retentions.

The order to be used in presenting the dialogues continues the pattern established earlier in this study, with categories discriminating along the Halpin dimensions preceding those discriminating along the Schutz dimensions, as follows:

Categories discriminating along Halpin's Initiating Structure dimension
Categories discriminating along Halpin's Consideration dimension
Categories discriminating along Schutz' Inclusion Wanted dimension
Categories discriminating along Schutz' Control Wanted dimension

The analysis of the composite dialogues will be presented in Chapter VI.

Categories which Discriminate along Halpin's Initiating Structure Dimension

High Initiating Structure: ATTEMPT Category

The problem is there and we are going to take action to try to eliminate the problem or to do something that would help the child to overcome the problem.

You have made that extreme effort and the thing is that these boys are not severe enough to be in special education.

But they could have been if we would not have made the effort to reach them, you see.

They could develop into very severe problems if we would not put forth effort, as we are doing.

Well, I think maybe this is a unique problem, and you have to try to budget your time so that you will have a few extra minutes with Todd.

Try and do it that way.

If we need two days or a day and a half or whatever, we will try and work it out.

Let's try to think that one through.

Well, your opinion then is that he should be placed along and try to provide work at his particular level, to see if he improves at all.

And yet you have to be careful that we do not become rather complacent and a little naive in recognizing problems, rather than trying to negate things that may be rather apparent.

But you think that Mark could, with a little more effort?

Now, did they try, I forgot to ask her?

But had Norine tried to get his records?

I don't remember that we got much of anything except a transfer card, in our attempts to glean information about this child.

Maybe he just did not try.

What are you trying to do?

Especially mention that you know that he is scheduled for testing and that the teacher should pursue that, should see that it gets accomplished.

And then let me know what happens there and then I'll try to set up an appointment for early next week and I will have her come in, and I will go over the achievement scores with her and then let her decide.

Low Initiating Structure:
ATTEMPT Category

He seems to be academically maybe a little pacing himself and he should be challenged a little bit.

I think that I'd try to get the kindergarten throug three using the same door.

And I have found that the best results as far as discipline problems, I do not mean mild ones, I mean severe ones, are handled when the parents are brought in, and the parents and the school work together to try to solve it.

I think that if you try something like that, I think along those lines you may get some success with John because I think back to the students of my teaching days.

In general, however, you have then gone to the basics and tried to build his foundation, have you not?

That's what I'm trying to develop, some preparation time, yes.

You are always struggling with this.

If it's all right, I will have her call you some time when she is trying to lay out her strategy for next year.

Shall I try to test it out between now and the first week of summer or so?

No, well, you gave it a try, I think.

Would you like to try that?

High Initiating Structure:
SELF Category

Oh, I very definitely feel this way.

I'm talking about the human values.

Remember what I said to you though.

I'd say there's no need to be consistent about that.

Well, I did meet him, I thought he was a nice guy, of course, that doesn't mean anything.

I have feelings about this boy.

Now, I haven't noticed any of this belligerency this year.

Before we make our recommendation to the Guidance Department and to the parent I think we should think through the maturity of this child.

Children that start here in kindergarten, I see them go through our fourth grade, I see how they've changed.

Let's get your reaction to some of the statements I've made.

Now this is my responsibility.

I would recommend that.

I think this is very important.

I want to know why you would reject it.

Well, I think it should be held that this is something that they use the right way.

Low Initiating Structure:
SELF Category

I agree with you that the other would be top priority.

Yes, I know you can.

I don't need to worry about that then, right?

I kind of thought you were.

Yes, I'd better, yes.

I can see some reason behind that.

I'm not trying to be, I don't want to be dictatorial here.

I'd like to talk about it with everybody involved.

I could be wrong.

Oh, well, I don't know either.

Tell me.

You know, if we can honor requests that do not make any difference anyway, I think it's a good idea.

I think I also need to tell you something else.

And I do too, you know.

You see, again I'm groping here.

I don't quite know what to say.

No, I'd agree with you.

I think this is the distinction that I see emerging here.

I don't know that he is going to be able to cope with third grade either.

Now, that's just kind of what I was driving at a little bit earlier, Elaine.

It's all right with me, in a way.

In fact, I think she's so cute.

Let's try that next year too, and if there is something else you can think of, please let me know.

If you think of anything else I'll be looking forward to your recommendations on that.

Categories which Discriminate along Halpin's Consideration Dimension

High Consideration:
ACADEMIC Category

Oh, yes, well I'm going to put in for a study on her right in September.

By the way she's going to be at Pioneer School all day long.

These are the emotional problems and I think this is one of the things I indicated to you and to the mother when we talked about it, when I said we had some reservations about piling one more thing on this child.

And of course, we go along with that because this is the case I'm thinking of, that we just mentioned earlier, the father felt this boy was learning slowly, but he thought it was a pattern that would always be with him just as it had always been with him.

I think both of us felt this, and of course, I met with these parents three years in a row, but I always had real respect for these parents because I felt they really understood him.

He thought if somebody did not do the work they should fail, regardless of whether they were in first grade or eighth grade and I asked him if he thought it would help any to keep Scott, you know, back, because this is the particular boy we were talking about.

His test scores really are not too bad.

And, so he is going to start out at a deficit and you know, he's got to be a slow student, or he would not have been considered for this.

So the median I.Q. is 109, so he's not, you know, that far below the rest of the class.

Because that would help if we had this in his record.

I wonder if enough time has lapsed since his mother started working that we might be beginning to see results here of, he walks home with Mike and there is certainly no hurry in getting home and the horseplay is with third-graders, and he is feeling a little bit more confident, I think, about the trip home and being alone outdoors.

But as far as a real concern about their ability to read, it would be more of a concern for Joe than for Mark, where Mark's concern is the more general.

This is a real tough one this is the whole problem with this kid Petie in Eileen's room, you know.

Sure, and this is why I thought it was so important that we did not keep this kid back because, if you know academically, you know, it could have been a good case, but I think it would have just wiped him out completely.

Very good, so that student involvement is probably one of the most important things about this program and it really makes it meaningful to them, this really.

Low Consideration:
ACADEMIC Category

Well now this point of taking tests is a very pertinent point because if it's obvious that he just is not going to be able to take tests and we have to discount this and evaluate him in some other way or we are going to obviously be in trouble.

Now he's slow moving so he is likely then to always have too little time to do any assignment in class.

Well I can see where a boy like this in probably any normal school setting is going to deal with a lot of frustration.

Do I hold this child's hand through his math assignments or do I deal with the more basic things?

And of course the purpose of this discussion is not necessarily to say we are going to retain or we are not going to retain but to decide what we are going to do.

That would make him sixteen when he got out of the eighth grade and then he would drop out of school.

It seems that the school that he attended before had scheduled him for testing and then he had moved and never gotten it.

And I think you have carried on quite an interesting bit here in terms of her total academic checking and prescribing a program for her.

Your report indicates that this youngster has self-confidence and he has a feeling of security in school.

Could there be a problem, too much of a hurdle for him if we were to just move him on a basis of merely accomplishment, academic accomplishment?

I think too, I have seen you working with various kinds of materials prescribing a program for him where you do not lock him into so-called first grade.

The impact at home is bad enough, I would think, at the present time, and perhaps this kind of thing would upset his whole method of operation in our school.

Maybe he would be able to keep up in the other class?

What per cent of it is educational?

He's very miserable because I bawled him out about that test last night.

We're going to have this special education program in the township going and we'll have a place to put emotionally disturbed children and the culturally deprived and all of the other classifications.

Well, what is his present status in terms of his reading progress and arithmetic progress?

Now, he's, one of the things that happens, his mother is terribly concerned about academics.

Well I think that when we, we still have about nine weeks of school, and let's be absolutely certain that Rick gets all of the specific help and attention that he needs during the next nine weeks.

Mark is new in our school this year.

He is being bussed in this year from formerly Lowland School last year.

I was wondering if it may be the new change, coming to a new school, coming to a new environment here, being bussed over, new area of the district, if this is a problem of adjustment.

Do you have any extra work for John and students like John when they get done with their assignments, required assignments?

They will just either sit there or they will get themselves involved in another breaking of your rules in the room and then become a discipline problem.

High Consideration:
COMMUNICATE Category

Are you saying that the principal should make these decisions?

But you are saying that maybe there should be some kind of a moderating thing, that somebody should say "No, this is carrying it too far."

These are the emotional problems and I think this is one of the things I indicated to you and to the mother when we talked about it when I said we had some reservations about piling one more thing on this child.

I know what you are going to say.

You and I sat through a conference where we talked about giving a youngster more time.

And as you said, they are environmental in structure or basis.

Now, have you found up to now, of course I know from what you've already said that the problem will become even worse as time progresses, but up to now you have been able to handle it, right?

We have to be aware of whether this is a surface thing or whether as I think you've said, this is something that is deep.

Yes, that's what I was going to suggest.

At the time you said it was more maturity, or, yes, the kind of thing that she gets so easily, I would think.

No, I'll say it isn't.

She said the same thing as you.

Well, the whole thing is in the process of being reinterpreted, and hopefully, it will be clarified.

Thanks for telling me about him.

What would your advice be?

A typical junior high girl, you know what that means, talks a lot, giggles, very conscious of clothes.

So what you're saying is put him with Norine.

Low Consideration:
COMMUNICATE Category

Did they report it to the police?

All right, he is educationally retarded, I'm not denying that and I'm not talking about promoting him.

Okay, fine, when we inform the parents I have a notion that we can convince Mrs. Hyde, and it all depends on them, how their war is going on to see who is going to have control, present control.

Even though we had publicized a great deal that they're supposed to stay, you know, until ten 'til, and they're not supposed to be on the playground, and they're not supposed to be coming to school.

Now, note, I'm not asking you if you're going to move in this direction because this is the direction the district is taking.

And I told her it was not a beating, it was a spanking, and I had a witness, you know.

I recommend that he have a psychological exam, and I called the mother to make an appointment for the nurse to go over and get a health history, and she refused.

Are you talking about now the principal or the teacher?

You're talking about teachers sending students to the office and under what conditions, the principal being the ultimate figure.

I think it's my figure, the figure and the office that I represent here in the school, and my relationship to the students.

I talked with him about having any friends, what you would call friends in the room, and he did not seem to have any.

And it's a very unfair kind of judgment to ask a person to make, I know, but it's the kind of capsule that gets teachers to look at a child from a different angle.

But I can see that he simply is not going to be able at all to be doing eighth grade work in math, and I'm wondering, have the parents suggested to you or have you suggested to them that they should continue some sort of tutoring when he gets here?

You're a teacher and you could say it.

We had such a case that came to us late in the school year, as a matter of fact, I think around the first of January, and Diane you might discuss some things about this child the problems we encountered meeting her needs in terms of adjustment to her peers and the whole bit of establishment in a new home situation.

And, of course, the purpose of this discussion is not necessarily to say we are going to retain or we are not going to retain but to decide what we're going to do.

Telling the teacher specifically what?

You'd better have Mrs. Drone order that report and if not you'll have to write up a new one and get all the pertinent information on it.

I think in most cases where I've talked to the parents they have not followed up.

Well, see, this is it, if you don't want any help, you're specifying this.

I don't think it's going to work if you just say, "All right, this is the program for next year, take it."

High Consideration:
ARTISTIC Category

Yes, well this is a beautiful thought but I don't think it always works.

In other words, they have just created different boundary lines that would put them in that building and would not involve bussing.

You have to be a sensitive person, and I think this is one of the things as an administrator that I have to be careful about that I do not become over-emotional or overly sensitive about a problem, because I can, it would take all of my time, about this little child over in this room that is having a problem.

I had him in math, and again when I can look him squarely in the eye and say, "Look David, as long as I'm being paid to do this job, and you are being sent here to learn, you sit down, and you keep your mouth shut," and we will get along beautifully.

Would you think probably, taking a clue from something you said, would you think that probably a youngster who may have difficulty in reading and who may have some difficulty in spelling might still be a very creative thinker, if you could remove that inhibition?

But it's not an easy class and you stay on top of them and they are moving along beautifully.

Low Consideration:
ARTISTIC Category

But then again you can create a situation where under certain circumstances there are some students that only respond in this way.

One of the biggest problems with the girls is a lack of a strong male image.

Let's just point out to him the progress that he's made and let him draw the conclusions because he's old enough to do this now.

Because I really think this little guy has, you know, average ability, and he's performing pretty much at that level.

I'm more interested in your personal evaluation of his style of learning and anything you could tell us about how to handle him when we get him in a so-called normal eighth grade.

He never finishes a test and probably he doesn't finish a task within a given period of time that is designed for most children to complete it.

If teachers know that they are dealing with somebody who in many ways is performing like a sixth-grader, then this helps them scale down their expectations.

I went into the room the other day, and he was outside the room, and I staged an anger, and made him, I forced him, to do his arithmetic work, and he can do it.

High Consideration:
OUGHT Category

Right, so that you don't have all big assignments due at the same time.

But, understanding children, this will never be true and he should feel that at least they are teachable and are learning and are not in any severe problems.

I know you have twenty some others in your room and to devote as much time as you should with Todd can be quite a problem.

All right now, I don't know whether we should say maturity, or effort, or cooperation, or one of the things I would like to get as far as this is concerned, are youngsters who as third-graders might be ones who would profit from using the learning center on an independent basis.

Must these two fellows?

You ought to mention this to the mother.

And, yes, oh then I should move her.

And then, what the teachers have been doing is, you will look to see which youngsters shouldn't be in the same room with another one, whether it's by being related to them as a sibling or a cousin or something like that, or because of their behavior, you know, when they're together.

A school day is not a play day, and I think they should dress appropriately.

I think that myself, after looking at these things would probably recommend that he be passed on to second grade, but I think the parents should probably be told that if he doesn't start doing the work, and so forth, that he probably will have to, because he's a little behind now, according to this, if you want to go by this.

Low Consideration:
OUGHT Category

Would it, I think that maybe for Randy in particular you should make a point, after you've had the parent conferences toward the end of the year, just to sit down with him for fifteen minutes or so and go over his whole year's work, where he was in September and where you think he is now, and what it is you see in his day-to-day operation that is causing him difficulty.

So he knows where he is and that the school as such has confidence in him at this point and where it is he should be going.

I think this is something we should be absolutely certain it is doing for him.

I see he will be going into junior high, and the homeroom teacher should get a report on areas where he's weak, areas where he needs special help, especially his reading, things like that.

Especially mention that you know he is scheduled for testing and that the teacher should pursue that, should see that it gets accomplished.

Well, I don't think we have any choice but to pass him and recommend special attention, and here again, I think you should have it written up.

You say that whatever action that the student takes that you think corporal punishment should be used against, this should be done immediately?

And the teacher has to wait until the last, must have used all available remedies and solutions to the problem and then the child should be sent to the office.

Dr. Joyce believes that structuring is the modus operandi that we should use in schools.

Before we make our recommendation to the Guidance Department and to the parent I think we should think through the maturity of this child.

The only reason I seemed at all hesitant is that I do not want you to, and in this particular case, I do not think we should be failing this boy as a punishment, you know.

What should we say to Mrs. Moody?

If we need some supplemental things, then we should get them.

I said that he's running up and down the fire escapes hollering into windows, calling children by name, when he should have been in school.

Yes, you must have some in your own mind, some standards.

High Consideration:
SIGN-STRONG Category

And this kid needs somebody strong.

I want to stilllbalance the, probably have a few that would respond better to a softer spoken personality than Ursula, and Ursula comes on strong, and she'll be good for a certain kind of child.

This boy is very bright, and he has a lot of potential as far as leadership, but he's extremely impatient and intolerant of people.

And when he's there (the father) he gives it, the discipline, but it's without love and it has to be with the love, and this seems to be wrong.

And probably when he gets home a lot of times she's gone and doesn't give him the continuity of her own discipline.

Well, there's a great deal, I think, we can do for each other, with each other, for the eventual benefit of the child.

It's foolish for anyone else to try to take over.

Yes, and let Anne help her.

To me it seems like they should know, you know, like now, they should be able to decide good enough whether this person will be able to be second grade work or will not be able to do second grade work.

Low Consideration:
SIGN-STRONG Category

They expect the administration to do many of the things that the teachers could be doing as far as working with the parents.

Let that teacher give it to him.

He was in a boys' home out in Nebraska, taken away from the mother.

Now the situation we have here is that we don't group kids by ability, but we do have small classes, and our teachers are experienced in handling kids who have various kinds of difficulties, including learning disabilities.

But we've been able to keep the situation depressurized enough that he is able to function and this is I assume what our main task would be here with Joe.

Now we fortunately have a competent veteran teacher in math in seventh and eighth grade level, and she is very understanding of special cases like this.

I wish we could kind of erase all grade lines.

But we can't always do that, so we have to bring materials to the child and help him within his particular climate.

I believe next year we have both these men teachers in sixth grade, unless the army takes them, and I believe that this kind of thing would be good for him.

How can we assure ourselves that they'll get that special attention, this is the big question.

I don't want to say to you that you have to handle all the discipline when it gets that serious, and you have to keep them in the room, but yesterday was sort of a bad situation, because there were four of them in the office with her and it just, this was bad.

And it all depends on them, how their war is going on to see who is going to have control, present control.

But what is Elaine going to be able to do with this guy outside of giving him just a year more to grow up, is that what?

Okay, I was just wondering because that may have a bearing on what we could do too.

High Consideration:
GUIDE Category

Right, that really is the job of teaching anyway, isn't it, to get kids curious and to give them the skills so they can ferret out information themselves?

The problem is there and we're going to take action to try to eliminate the problem or to do something that would help the child to overcome the problem.

Right now we have something that probably you can handle, and which you are handling, and I don't think that we'll have to go into the homebound situation.

Well, your opinion then is that he should be placed along and try to provide work at his particular level, to see if he improves at all?

But to let next year's teacher know too, kind of keep an eye on this and some of Louise's girls, yes.

I think you should help decide that, you, and both that, and Matt.

Yes, and that is good, and Anne can help her individually and she'll have the time to give.

And I want you to help out on this when she comes in.

Tentatively let us place him.

And then the final thing will be to check to see that there's somewhat of a balance between the academically gifted ones and the ones that require an awful lot of individual help.

I thought it was great, it seemed to make a lot of sense to me as far as catching these kids early, and then also, at the same time you're reinforcing what the first grade teachers are going to be doing.

Low Consideration:
GUIDE Category

I think that at Cresland School, I think he'll find it much more helpful because they have what they refer to as a resource teacher, an itinerant teacher that is assigned to the building.

And she works there every day in the same room and the youngsters go to her just as they would go to any other special teacher for help.

And Randy will, I'm sure, benefit from Mrs. Dove's help.

I think that he will require a lot of special help when he gets to the junior high school, all the way through.

He has outside help in reading.

Recommend for him some continued help during the summer.

I'd like to see the parents' help brought in, because, I think we get more done if we do get the help of the parents.

The parent has to become aware, second they have to come in and give as much help as they can.

And I suppose you can provide information to the parents, where, who to talk to, or write.

Do you think this boy can be expected to function without some of these outside supports to bolster him up?

High Consideration:
LEGAL Category

See, the upper school doesn't, so the bell rings and every teacher is responsible.

Every year I see more evidence that there is very little we can do to change the basic personality.

The idea, in my mind, is that one must bring into perspective the true justice due to Black people.

But during the current year I have not had a single parent come in or call about, in the way of registering a complaint or a criticism for a student in your room.

Well, yes, you know, I think on Webster it almost takes a commitment to bringing in the whole program, though.

Low Consideration:
LEGAL Category

Did they report it to the police?

I think that based on some of the discussions on liability and our responsibility we're going to have to supervise, you know, in this period of from quarter 'til on.

So we'll have next year, have to have a recess time supervising schedule, where somebody is responsible for a period of time.

We're still obligated to the parents by common accepted practice to provide supervisors at doors and to keep, you know, congestion from happening at the doors.

And I called the police this morning and asked him would he drive around the block.

It is the same mother that accused me of beating the child when I spanked him.

And I told her it was not a beating, it was a spanking, and I had a witness, you know.

I still have a witness, I never spank them without a witness.

And therefore, the user's original intent, whatever that may be, at least as is set up by the state, because in this state corporal punishment is allowed by the State Code, which says that the teacher does stand in place of the parents, in the classroom.

Let me tell you what I think my responsibility would be.

Now this is my responsibility.

Mrs. Lambert brought out that it may not really be wise for just one person to go there for personal safety or for liability reasons.

High Consideration:
HIGHER-STATUS Category

But a kid not to say a word, you know, for a whole year to a teacher is really odd.

Right, and she's always mentioning the rapport and so on with the kindergarten teacher.

For you, personally, as a teacher.

He could go out and work with the gym instructor, keep score, or do things like that.

Then if we have to get a note from the doctor saying that he can't, you know, go to school because of this physical disability, and get a statement from the doctor.

Now you never talked to the father, just the mother?

The father was very firm and evidently he travels quite a lot.

This is true and he isn't home as often as a normal father, you know, and you can even see this in the boy.

Well, we'll just have to make sure that we talk to her mother beforehand.

I think more parents do more harm.

Have you been in touch with his mother quite a bit this year?

Do you think this is the type of referral which should have been previously referred to the psychologist?

I've been a bit of a critic in some of the lower grades.

Well, no not as far as, we don't, as far as placing children, we seldom if ever will place or make a change on a parent request.

If you get loud once in a while then it really means that the teacher is upset.

That mother has been in, you know, she was an awfully cute mother.

Well, whoever knows where her locker is, just dump the rest of that stuff in that bag, and bring it into the office and if mother comes for it, fine, and if mother doesn't come, I am not going to call her.

By the way, the mother, it was suggested to the mother by Jeffry's psychiatrist that she have a full psychological work-up, and so this.

And then of course father will threaten to get somebody fired.

And the father said, "You got a lot of goddam nerve sending them over to my house to see if we're clean enough."

He, (the youngster), will also walk into a classroom and tell the teacher how that class should be run, and that she's really not doing a very effective job.

Low Consideration:
HIGHER-STATUS Category

You see at home I'm sure that his father understands and his brothers but I'm not absolutely sure that his mother really understands him.

Mrs. Lambert has spent a lot of time with these boys and the father spends little or no time with them and is not actively involved with these boys at any level.

He really needs this because I don't know that he gets any from his father.

I had a conference with the parents last month, and they mentioned him being at Pioneer for several years.

But I can see that he simply is not going to be able at all to be doing eighth grade work in math, and I'm wondering, have the parents suggested to you or have you suggested to them that they should continue some sort of tutoring when he gets here?

I'm thinking of, what I'm trying to think of now is what strategy, tutoring strategy, might be developed for next year, and I'm sure that the parents will confer with you on it.

Before we make our recommendation to the Guidance Department and to the parent I think we should think through the maturity of this child.

What is your reaction in your conferences with the mother, when you raised this question?

Have his parents been in?

Well, is there any way we can indicate to the parents too, what, why they are being passed on?

The parents as I understand, and I think I got this information from her, are interested in Scott being tested.

So, right, so I don't think there will be any problem with the parents.

And it calls for the health history, as the parents see it, I suppose.

Now this Larry, who are his parents?

And I suppose you can provide information to the parents, where, who to talk to, or write.

Most parents already know that we are having problems, so we say that because of these problems, we want to test him.

Yes, well now part of our problem is the father.

But then, that is giving in to his parents, too.

And, of course, we get a fight out of this if the parents don't agree.

It's the same mother that accused me of beating the child when I spanked him.

I think the parents, some of these parents especially, are just a little bit too protective.

I mean I don't see what we as educators have given the parents to believe, or how we have given them to believe that we are not on their side.

Categories which Discriminate along Schutz' Inclusion Wanted Dimension

High Inclusion Wanted: SELVES Category

How do you think we should handle the conference?

Okay, then, can you think of anything else that we need to take into consideration?

Well, if you think of anything we can add it later.

Let me know if there's anything that we should add.

Have you done anymore thinking, what would you recommend as far as the way in which we talk to the parents, about the group being together and with you?

Let's make it strictly positive.

Okay, I appreciate your concerns about him, and we'll follow through with that sixth grade placement and help with the itinerant program.

So, okay, let's keep our eye on him for the rest of the year.

Do you remember when we looked at that Eileen?

You and I sat thru a conference where we talked about giving a youngster more time.

I think both of us felt this.

Low Inclusion Wanted:
SELVES Category

Before we make our recommendation to the Guidance Department and to the parents, I think we should think through the maturity of this child.

But we can't always do that, so we have to bring materials to the child and help him within his particular climate.

Well, let's move back to Stokely, let's take these one at a time and get them out of the way.

What do we do with this boy if we don't retain him?

We want to see if we can find out some more about him.

Why don't you, no just be sure that we get a written report to the next teacher.

We might as well get it going so that we have it all worked out.

And, you know, I suppose at some point, this is one of the areas where I cannot back you up all the way because it's an opinion that we have, not necessarily a district policy.

What should we say to Mrs. Thomas, okay, now, this is what we're going to say, yes.

Well, I think in a problem like this, we have to strike up a happy medium.

We just have the child five hours a day, fifteen per cent of their schoolage life.

But, where we tend to make our mistakes is in not really knowing enough about a particular child, especially if they have not been with us.

If we've lived with them for six years we sort of learn to integrate them and to know what to expect from them.

We'll just say that they are average kids, let's not muddy the thing up.

High Inclusion Wanted:
ARTISTIC Category

For instance, how is the one time a week when they are all together for the music?

As long as teachers are aware of that, then it does not bother me too much, because if they're aware of that and sensitive to it, then they're going to take it into their planning.

Would you think probably, taking a clue from something you said, would you think that probably a youngster who may have difficulty in reading and who may have some difficulty in spelling might still be a very creative thinker, if you could remove that inhibition?

It's not an easy class and you stay on top of them and they're moving along beautifully.

Let's just point out to him the progress that he's made and let him draw the conclusions because he's old enough to do this now.

Because I really think this little guy has, you know, average ability and he's performing pretty much at that level.

Maybe it was because it was just a different form of grouping and the direction it took was so different.

Low Inclusion Wanted:
ARTISTIC Category

If teachers know that they're dealing with somebody who in many ways is performing like a sixth-grader then this helps them scale down their expectations.

I went into the room the other day, and he was outside the room and I staged an anger, and made him, I forced him, to do his arithmetic work, and he can do it.

But then again you can create a situation where under certain circumstances there are some students that only respond in this way.

One of the biggest problems with the girls is a lack of strong male image.

I had him in math, and again when I can look him squarely in the eye and say, "Look, David, as long as I'm being paid to do this job, and you're being sent here to learn, you sit down, and you keep your mouth shut, and we'll get along beautifully."

They're not sensitive to others.

Yes, well this is a beautiful thought but I don't think it always works.

In other words, they have just created different boundary lines that would put them in that building and would not involve bussing.

You have to be a sensitive person, and I think this is one of the things as an administrator that I have to be careful about that I do not become over-emotional or overly sensitive about a problem, because I can, it would take all of my time, about this little child over in this room that is having a problem.

I imagine it varies tremendously.

High Inclusion Wanted:
ACADEMIC Category

And of course we go along with that because this is the case I am thinking of, that we just mentioned earlier, the father felt this boy was learning slowly, but he thought it was a pattern that would always be with him just as it had always been with him.

I think both of us felt this, and of course, I met with these parents three years in a row, but I always had real respect for these parents because I felt they really understood him.

His test scores really are not too bad.

So the median I.Q. is 109, so he's not, you know, that far below the rest of the class.

Because that would help if we had this in his record.

I wonder if enough time has lapsed since his mother started working that we might be beginning to see results here of, he walks home with Mike and there is certainly no hurry in getting home and the horseplay is with third-graders, and he's feeling a little bit more confident, I think, about the trip home and being alone outdoors.

Yes but until anybody really sees this demonstrated it is almost impossible to convey this kind of teaching to anybody or to give this infectious feeling.

She made it to the Sunnybrook, to the Metropolitan Zoo and had no real problems.

I think that at Meadowlark School, I think we will find it much more helpful because they have what they refer to as a resource teacher, an itinerant teacher that is assigned to the building.

And we will have to make this recommendation in May, when we discuss the groups as they get ready to go to Redland School, that this boy not get lost.

I think that will be very helpful if before school was out, maybe toward the end of the term, in the first part of June, if you would sit down with him and just point out to him only those things that you see that are good, and that spell progress.

He needs this and he needs it from you because you're his teacher.

I think at conference time that it will be important to indicate to his mother that we think, that you've discussed this, that you're concerned and that you really feel that Mark needs additional help during the summer to make that first year at Forest School a successful one for him.

Low Inclusion Wanted:
ACADEMIC Category

But a kid not to say a word, you know, for a whole year to a teacher is really odd.

As you are aware the very old traditional patterns of instruction and self-contained classrooms are breaking down in this school and it's a gradual thing.

Look there's no district policy and there never has been a school policy on it.

As far as this particular, maybe the system is concerned, I'm not sure we can talk to anybody outside of our own school.

Disorganized, poor student, and he's a poor student to boot.

He'll also walk into a classroom and tell the teacher how that class should be run, that she's really not doing a very effective job.

Well now this point of taking tests is a very pertinent point because if it's obvious that he just isn't going to be able to take tests and we have to discount this and evaluate him in some other way or we're going to obviously be in trouble.

Now he is slow moving so he is likely then to always have too little time to do any assignment in class.

He never finishes a test and probably he doesn't finish a task within a period of time that is designed for most children to complete it.

He has never done work anywhere close to grade level and yet he's fitting in and people accept him and he's doing quite well socially.

And of course the purpose of this discussion is not necessarily to say we're going to retain or we're not going to retain but to decide what we're going to do.

That would make him sixteen when he got out of eighth grade and then he would drop out of school.

It seems that the school that he attended before had scheduled him for testing and then he had moved and never gotten it.

I think in most cases where I've talked to the parents they haven't followed up.

I think too, I've seen you working with various kinds of materials prescribing a program for him where you don't lock him into so-called first grade.

The only reason I seemed at all hesitant is that I don't want you to, and in this particular case, I don't think we should be failing this boy as a punishment, you know.

I recommend that he have a psychological examination and I called the mother to make an appointment for the nurse to go over and get a health history and she refused.

They'll just either sit there or they'll get themselves involved in another breaking of your rules in the room and then become a discipline problem.

High Inclusion Wanted:
THOUGHT-FORM Category

You bring it up in relation to a subject area.

Oh now, Julie, you would defeat one of my main beliefs, then.

Swipe some ideas from other teachers.

Maybe you just come to it youself, as you say, this is a need to experiment or maybe you get an idea from somebody else.

I have no idea unless she requested you last year.

Well, I appreciate your concern because Daniel has been a problem.

Not a problem in the sense of difficulty, but a concern to his teachers since third grade.

All right, what are your ideas on her for next year, in the beginning?

I want to know why you would reject it.

Low Inclusion Wanted: THOUGHT-FORM Category

Let that be a teaching experience instead of a problem.

You have to work with them in such a way that if you have an idea you have to plant it within this individual, so that when the conditions are right they will come up with the idea that you wanted them to have.

The only thing that may happen now if this becomes a problem so that he disrupts the rest of the class then we could look into the home-bound tutor.

Mrs. Matthews is a wonderful woman except that she will not face reality.

Well, I'm not too sure that outlining or structuring per se is completely valid in every area, because it would seem to me that a child could develop some bizarre concepts if he didn't branch with ideas.

Now actually, all schools need to keep some kind of child accounting system, and we tried to get this information from this state in the West and this school.

Again, he moved up from the South, he's probably a perfect example of cultural deprivation.

I think the fear of the unknown, of the child being sent to the office, not knowing what's going to happen, as opposed to knowing that the principal is going to administer corporal punishment, an automatic thing.

It comes through when I see Jane in the office on a one-to-one relationship.

Well, you always have a sort of a dilemma here because, on the one hand, the payoff in helping a child with his individual assignment appears to the child to be instant success, whereas working on the basics the payoff seems to be down the road, and it's the same problem our learning disabilities therapist has.

Because he got these other just simple number two addition facts, but he couldn't do these.

Now I kind of think that Glenn's problem is this emotional problem.

Well, yes, I think this is so important, because a lot of these kids that we're working with have problems, the biggest stumbling block is their own self, you know, idea of self, and whether they can do it or cannot do it.

That's an interesting idea, ghad, you're full of ideas here!

Categories which Discriminate along Schutz' Control Wanted Dimension

High Control Wanted: ACADEMIC Category

And of course we go along with that because this is the case I'm thinking of, that we just mentioned earlier, the father felt this boy was learning slowly, but he thought it was a pattern that would always be with him just as it had always been with him.

Very good, so that student involvement is probably one of the most important things about this program and it really makes it meaningful to them, this really.

Do you think this is the type of referral which should have been previously referred to the psychologist?

Do you think her (the mother) pride is in the way of recognizing the real problem?

And it seems to me that he's kind of testing his own, to see what he can get away with.

But as far as a real concern about their ability to read, it would be more of a concern for Peter than for Michael where Michael's concern is the more general.

Sure, and this is why I thought it was so important that we didn't keep this kid back because, if you know academically, you know, it could have been a good case, but I think it would have just wiped him out completely.

I don't know, maybe I'm just assuming something, but I imagine he's always had women teachers, he has only his mother at home, or has had.

That would make him sixteen when he got out of eighth grade and then he would drop out of school.

Well now, she indicated that Randy has a perceptual problem, she believes, and may need to be referred to Methodist General.

As you are aware the very old traditional patterns of instruction and self-contained classrooms are breaking down in this school and it's a gradual thing.

She made it to the Sunnybrook, to the Metropolitan Zoo and had no real problems.

Miss Thomas is really doing you a big favor, I told the child, because what you're doing now is have you go to different books to find things and using the table of contents and using indexes.

We've never had a hard and fast rule on it because teachers have probably heard about it.

Look there's no district policy and there never has been a school policy on it.

Well, Daniel has a behavioral problem, and he's a poor student to boot.

I had him in math, and again, when I can look at him squarely in the eye and say, "Look David, as long as I'm being paid to do this job, and you're being sent here to learn, you sit down and you keep your mouth shut, and we'll get along beautifully."

He'll be an extremely good student.

And he doesn't test well because he's not secure and I just don't think that retention at this particular time is going to solve any of his problems.

And we'll have to make this recommendation in May, when we discuss the groups as they get ready to go to Meadowlark School, that this boy not get lost.

He needs this and he needs it from you because you're his teacher.

Well, I think that when we, we still have about nine weeks of school, and let us be absolutely certain that Rick gets all of the specific help and attention that he needs during the next nine weeks.

So, in general, the climate among the teachers is pretty good and accepting.

If we've lived with them for six years we sort of learn to integrate them and to know what to expect from them.

Well, I can see where a boy like this in probably any normal school setting is going to deal with a lot of frustration.

Do I hold this child's hand through his math assignments or do I deal with the more basic things?

Low Control Wanted: ACADEMIC Category

Now I'm not using this as an excuse and I see our problem is that father has been told, you know, that he doesn't have a good teacher, you know, just pure racial thing, yes.

He's not going to get you know, his pick of teachers around here.

And the only reason I can agree with that philosophy, I don't think we are necessarily wrong, is that it's their kid, you know.

Somebody told me there is an unwritten law that, you know, when you fail a child, you give him a different teacher, you know.

If we can be convinced that third grade and that his whole educational future will be that much better in '69 than it will be in '68 then let's repeat him.

But I like to think the element of surprise at the type of punishment that is going to be dealt out to him when he is sent to the office a part of the weapon too.

And I've found that the best results as far as discipline problems, I don't mean mild ones, I mean severe ones, are handled when the parents are brought in, and the parents and the school work together to try to solve it.

Let that teacher give it to him.

I was wondering if it may be the new change, coming to a new school, coming to a new environment here, being bussed over, new areas of the district, if this is a problem of adjustment.

Do you have any extra work for Daniel and students like Daniel when they get done with their assignments, required assignments?

I think Daniel, if I may interject this just from my own experience, I think Daniel is the kind of a student that needs to be told more what to do than maybe some other students.

They'll just either sit there or they'll get themselves involved in another breaking of your rules in the room and then become a discipline problem.

He's very miserable because I bawled him out about that test last night.

One of the boys in the seventh grade, after he got his report card, jotted his own comments down there and changed the grades to suit himself.

We're going to have this special education program in the township going and we'll have a place to put emotionally disturbed children, and the culturally deprived, and all of the other classifications.

Was he one of the ones that you recommended for the psychologist to test?

And what you might also try, this is something that I read recently in The Grade Teacher.

And I think you've carried on quite an interesting bit here in terms of her total academic checking and prescribing a program for her.

Your report indicated that this youngster has self-confidence and he has a feeling of security in school.

Does he though, get a sense of leadership, and does he relate well to the children in the class?

Could there be a problem, too much of a hurdle for him if we were to just move him on a basis of merely accomplishment, academic accomplishment?

I think too, I've seen you working with various kinds of materials prescribing a program for him where you don't lock him into so-called first grade.

I think as I recalled, you obtained materials that would really be on second maybe third grade level and enabled him to, well, you've prescribed things to meet this aptitude factor.

As far as this particular, maybe the system is concerned, I'm not sure [illegible]n talk to anybody outside of our own school.

Yes, and he's going to get older and by the time he gets with sixth- and seventh- graders, and this year, then this part about hitting them, and acting, and those kids teasing him, that will probably all be worse.

High Control Wanted: UNDERSTATE Category

And what seems to be the problem?

And so, actually the move or change that we made in putting Dan in another classroom, now, does this seem to have been the right decision?

Well, the children, in other words, in your class and on the playground, evidently know him well enough that maybe they're leaving him alone too, or he's playing better with them, too, I don't know, if they've accepted him.

I think that this little guy works so hard and there are other youngsters in the same family who do very well, maybe we just need wherever he's placed, to be patient with him and give him the time he needs, and individual attention he needs to work as rapidly or slowly as he wants.

He walks hom with Mike and there is certainly no hurry in getting home and the horseplay is with third-graders, and he's feeling a little bit more confident, I think, about the trip home and being alone outdoors.

Well, what about a youngster who maybe needs to spend a little bit more time on basics, on remedial?

I wanted to ask, this little Fiore, what's his name, Anthony?

Yes, I think this guy (the father) is a fairly masculine type who is pretty aggressive, and I don't think Byron is this type of person, and so the identification here is difficult, I think.

Maybe he'll find someone else to emulate, and become a little less effeminate.

These little sexual innuendoes.

On the other hand, we do not want them to sit like wooden soldiers and then with all the pent up energy, release it at lunch, or art, or recess, or something of the sort, our goal being self-discipline.

Well, Craig is a dear little boy and I'm sure Norine will love him.

This is a sweet kid, you know her, she's a dear little girl.

This little boy though gets into lots of things, and he looks dirty and unkempt, his clothes are wrinkled.

Yes, and you know he has done this, he's such a cocky little guy and sometimes can be a little bit irritating.

Not in that she wants A's and B's but that she certainly would be awfully, well it would be very difficult for her to accept retention for this little guy.

Because I really think this little guy has, you know, average ability and he is performing pretty much at that level.

So he'll be going almost rotely through some of it, almost tentatively.

It almost appears to me now that would be the more profitable course.

Low Control Wanted:
UNDERSTATE Category

As far as I.Q. goes, so he can probably do it when he wakes up.

It sort of seems to make more sense to have it that way.

That gets to be pretty messy, but that is a possibility.

I would think, for example, Anne, we've gotten her some special material this year, because she might be a good one that we ought to give sort of a little priority to.

I know you've been adjusting his work on a levels basis, so that he could scoot along faster, but this is a question in terms of his total maturity.

I noticed at times a bit of a strained relationship when I've seen the mother, and I suspect perhaps that there might be some kind of family problem there.

This is something that takes time.

He's very outgoing, he acts out all the time, and seems to be in need of attention all the time, recognition and attention, and does all kinds of pranks and playful things in the room to get this attention.

That may alleviate some of the problems.

I think that if you try something like that, I think along those lines you may get some success with Mark because I think back to the students of my teaching days.

Some people's nature, meaning who?

But the school has a function, it has a role, and I see that role only going so far.

And what you might also try, this is something that I read recently in The Grade Teacher.

But it will give you an indication, I think.

They're waiting for you to tell them something about their child, you know.

But, so that is not the thing, but, you know.

I mean he does not take and he does get involved in these little bitty fights somewhat.

No, I know, it is Ernestino or something, in Miss Dove's room, right.

We are still going to have somewhat of a problem.

I sort of think it's nice.

Well, they, I got an explanation from them that they were tripping somebody, and that they put their foot out in the aisle or something like that, but.

High Control Wanted:
LEGAL Category

Well, yes, you know, I think on Webster it almost takes a commitment to bringing in the whole program, though.

But during the current year, I haven't had a single parent come in or call about, in the way of registering a complaint or criticism for a student in your room.

The idea in my mind, is that one must bring into perspective the true justice due to Black people.

Every year I see more evidence that there's very little we can do to change the basic personality.

See, the Upper School does not, so the bell rings and every teacher is responsible.

If we could be sure that the homeroom teacher gets this material, then the homeroom teacher will be responsible for disseminating it.

Now this is my responsibility.

Mrs. Lambert brought out that it may not really be wise for just one person to go there for personal safety or for liability reasons.

Now, under what conditions would we feel justified, within the philosophy we accept here, in having kids in there every day?

Let me tell you what I think my responsibility would be.

Low Control Wanted:
LEGAL Category

Did they report it to the police?

I think that based on some of the discussions on liability and our responsibility we're going to have to supervise, you know, in this period of from quarter 'til on.

So we'll have next year, have to have a recess time supervising schedule, where somebody is responsible for a period of time.

We're still obligated to the parents by common accepted practice to provide supervisors at doors and to keep, you know, congestion from happening at the doors.

What do you think of the argument that has been put forth sometimes, and I may go along with it to some extent, that the teacher that uses corporal punishment sometimes can rely on it too heavily and use it as a crutch?

And therefore, the user's original intent, whatever that may be, at least as is set up by the state, because in this state corporal punishment is allowed by the State Code, which says that the teacher does stand in place of the parents in the classroom.

Bu I like to think the element of surprise at the type of punishment that is going to be dealt out to him when he is sent to the office a part of the weapon, too.

Every good teacher, in my way of thinking, should have many ways of dealing with these problems, with corporal punishment being the ultimate or the last resort.

So you have some extra work for Byron and students like Byron when they get done with their assignments, required assignments?

And I called the police this morning and asked him would he drive around the block.

It's the same mother that accused me of beating the child when I spanked him.

And I told her it was not a beating, it was a spanking, and I had a witness, you know.

I still have a witness, I never spank them without a witness.

High Control Wanted:
COMMUNICATE Category

Yes, one of the things you told me.

And as you said, they are environmental in structure or basis.

Do you think this is the type of referral which should have been previously referred to the psychologist?

We have to be aware of whether this is a surface thing or whether as I think you've said, this is something that is deep.

Express the concern on Joshua.

Yes I know this, it was graphically revealed this year.

Was that the one you were talking to?

What do we tell next year's teacher and how do we go about telling that to next year's teacher?

Okay and we'll talk further along these lines early in September.

My suggestion would be that Craig go to Maria, she has expressed some concern about taking him.

Listen can I ask you to do something later this week or early next week?

So what I'm saying is that in our placement there will be a few like I've already told Eileen, that the Blanchette girls are going to her, because I think Eileen can do the most for them.

So what you're saying is put him with Therese.

I think I also need to tell you something else.

Then you are saying that it's not an unwillingness to work or meet certain expectations.

This is what we're talking about.

If it's all right, I'll have her (the tutor) call you some time when she is trying to lay out her strategy for next year.

Isn't that really what we are saying here?

Low Control Wanted: COMMUNICATE Category

You began to get busy with her through testing watching her in her class situation talking with the stepmother about this youngster's needs.

He accepts responsibility very well, shows self-control, and is self-directive.

Have you talked to Mrs. Dove and maybe compared him a little bit with some of her children?

Ernestino doesn't even speak English to his teacher.

Well, see, this is it, if you do not want any help you're specifying this.

They, the parents, are waiting for you to tell them something about their child, you know.

I don't think it's going to work if you just say, "All right, this is the program for next year, take it."

Are you talking about now the principal or the teacher?

This, of course, behooves the teacher then to go into her so-called bag of tricks, psychologically, and find other methods that they can deal with problems.

You're talking about teachers sending students to the office and under what conditions, the principal being the ultimate figure.

I think it's my figure, the figure and the office that I represent here in the school, and my relationship to the students.

I talked with him about having any friends, what you would call friends in the room, and he didn't seem to have any.

So, I can't argue with anybody.

As far as this particular, maybe the system is concerned, I'm not sure we can talk to anybody outside of our own school.

Now I'm not using this as an excuse and I see our problem is that father has been told, you know, that he doesn't have a good teacher, you know, just pure racial thing, yes.

I'm not saying that let's not retain him because he would then have Norine again another year.

I don't like to say, to kids and we do it sometimes, "If you don't do your work you're going to fail," you know.

I don't want to say to you that you have to handle all the discipline when it gets that serious, and you have to keep them in the room, but yesterday was sort of a bad situation, because there were four of them in the office with her and it just, this was bad.

So I called his mother and told her about it, and she said, "Well I told him that he was in the wrong this time."

And I told her that it was not a beating, it was a spanking, and I had a witness, you know.

And I said that this is not the kind of a thing we can write off as "boys will be boys."

High Control Wanted:
SIGN-STRONG Category

And this kid needs somebody strong.

And I want you to help out on this when she comes in.

But in any case what I ended up doing was, I got them, I told the mothers to take them home.

This boy is very bright, and he has a lot of potential as far as leadership, but he is extremely impatient and intolerant of people.

Right now we have something that probably you can handle, and which you are handling, and I do not think that we will have to go into the home-bound situation.

And when he's there (the father) he gives it, the discipline, but it is without love and it has to be with the love.

And probably when he gets home a lot of times she is gone and does not give him the continuity of her own discipline.

Well, there is a great deal, I think, we can do for each other, with each other, for the eventual benefit of the child.

I purposely put him in charge of the patrol at the beginning of the year to give him the responsibility and make him work through something.

Now he needs either camp activity, a camp experience away from home with some boys where he can prove to himself that he is capable of taking care of himself.

I believe next year we have both these men teachers in sixth grade, unless the army takes them, and I believe that this kind of thing would be good for him.

This, right, she (the mother) fought at first, but I think she realizes that well, maybe, there's something to it.

I just didn't want the Schneiders to give the new person a hard time.

We don't have time, we don't have enough time to give them the poetry, the things that you said were really important, and I said that we'll take time then, we'll do a little less math.

Low Control Wanted: SIGN-STRONG Category

Okay, did I take yours away from you?

The offense has to be grave enough, has to be serious enough that the teacher needs the help of the principal.

They expect the administration to do many of the things that the teachers could be doing as far as working with the parents.

Let that teacher give it to him.

He was in a boys' home out in Nebraska, taken away from the mother.

I wish we could kind of erase all grade lines.

But we can't always do that, so we have to bring materials to the child and help him within his particular climate.

It's their child, and you know, why bother fighting it?

I, you know, because if we have a third grade opening, you know, we may have, you know, and his father says nothing, he's not going to take his kid out.

So we pretty much want to recommend it, and then, if they don't feel like it's all right, then we won't fight it.

We keep a very good set of records on these youngsters and establish a definite guidance program that follows them.

In other words, we don't want this thing to be just for the strong students.

Do you think we're going to be able to get away from the idea that we have to cover the entire world by the time they get out of sixth grade, as we do now?

High Control Wanted: OUGHT Category

But, understanding children, this will never be true and he should feel that at least they are teachable and are learning and are not in any severe problems.

I know you have twenty some others in your room and to devote as much time as you should with Todd can be quite a problem.

Let me know if there is anything that we should add.

She doesn't have to, no she shouldn't, because they are two of the same ilk, yes.

I should have given you the other one (child), too.

A school day is not a play day, and I think they should dress appropriately.

So he knows where he is and that the school as such has confidence in him at this point and where it is he should be going.

Maybe you should check the age out and consider that.

Well, I don't think we have any choice but to pass him and recommend special attention, and here again, I think you should have it written up.

Do you have children that you feel should be separated because it's a bad combination, Elaine?

Should I put Peter Michaels with Mary or do either of these need her?

Low Control Wanted:
OUGHT Category

And the teacher has to wait until the last, must have used all available remedies and solutions to the problem and then the child should be sent to the office.

Dr. Joyce believes that structuring is the modus operandi that we should use in schools.

Most of his work habits and total picture, I seriously wonder if we ought not to, in a sense for want of a better word double-promote this child.

Before we make our recommendation to the Guidance Department and to the parents I think we should think through the maturity of this child.

The only reason I seemed at all hesitant is that I don't want you to, and in this particular case, I don't think we should be failing this boy as a punishment, you know.

What should we say to Mrs. Moody?

But it does look to me that you ought to look at new materials.

If we need some supplemental things, then we should get them.

How should we segregate the children on doors, at what age?

So he should be doing average work,right?

Do you think that he should be retained, or?

Maybe we ought to think in terms of less groups and more flexibility.

Yes, you must have some in your own mind, some standards.

But if there is a good reason why you think, or somebody thinks that somebody should be kept back then I would probably try and keep them back, even if it were eighth grade, but it should be a very, very strong or good case, in order to do this.

No, you're right, she should not do it, that's right.

High Control Wanted: APPROACH Category

Yes, and another one *coming* into kindergarten.

Well, I did *meet* him, I thought he was a nice guy, of course, that does not mean anything.

Yes, this learning disabilities teacher, that is *coming* in.

How often did he *come* in?

I said, "*Come* on, let's go, time to get in," and she smiled and waved and went on her way.

And if he's doing it see if you can find out who is seeing it and if we could have some *contact* with them.

Oh there might be a late development with the itinerant program for this child and someone is *coming* here.

He doesn't *come* to school?

He always needs a haircut, it's always hanging long in his face, he won't put a comb through it, his hands will be black first thing in the morning, we have sent him to the washroom to get washed up, he'll *come* in late.

I remember, your youngsters *came* to me two days ago, "You know what Miss Dove did," big crocodile tears, "she won't let us use the encyclopedia."

Low Control Wanted: APPROACH Category

I think this *approach* is kind of good in a way, if it comes about to let the kids select a unit in which maybe we'll find out that the kinds of units we think are great, are not so great.

That they just are not adequately prepared ahead of time to *come* into this kind of situation.

I know that he's not *cooperating*.

But then, that's *giving* in to his parents, too.

But evidently, because you really do only have so much you can do with a given child, and you have exhausted your resources, and a different *approach* is good.

I mean he doesn't take and he does get *involved* in these little bitty fights somewhat.

So actually then, even on his, see he was rated as immature on his Draw-a-Man test here, had a low I.Q. but yet she gave him good satisfactory grades, right.

Now, we come back to this question relative to just slipping him along into so-called second grade.

Now, what, in your judgment, is a good approach to this?

It comes through when I see Jane in the office on a one-to-one relationship.

And something else that we talked about that comes into the social aspect of Bill is getting along with other boys and girls, and specifically boys, having friends, having what we would call friends in the room.

Well, I got the impression from talking with John in the office that he didn't, that on the playground the instances and scuffles that he was involved in were from smaller children.

High Control Wanted: SELVES Category

Did you tell her that after a few weeks of exploring here, that next year we may place him back again?

What do we do with this boy if we don't retain him?

Do we have all of the children now, that you had concerns about, either behaviorally or scholastically?

We will put down "vulnerable to praise."

Okay then, can you think of anything else that we need to take into consideration?

Well, we can stand one more fifth-grader, I guess, it's first-graders we don't really need next year.

Okay you've heard me say, not only to you but to other teachers that we want teachers to know what our curriculum guide is, where we're going, and she has a responsibility to Shoreville children to do this.

I think both of us felt this.

Now, let's look at these kids.

Low Control Wanted: SELVES Category

Before we make our recommendation to the Guidance Department and to the parents I think we should think through the maturity of this child.

But we cannot always do that, so we have to bring materials to the child and help him within his particular climate.

I'll admit that he's been everything that you've said, you know, and then it is not our fault.

Because there isn't a whole lot that we can do, that we can do to reach him, you know.

Of course you know this is out of our domain.

Well, I think in a problem like this, we have to strike up a happy medium.

The way it's been, we just haven't had the place to put them.

We just have the child five hours a day, fifteen per cent of their school-age life.

Well, we'll just have to make sure that we talk to her mother beforehand.

However, we do inherit children from other areas where there is little or nothing about them.

Well, we will check this out with the next teacher so that she gets a full battery of materials.

Well, last week, the boy got his dollar back for a locker refund, you know, when we collected the locks.

We live in a community where there used to be a definite degree of stability among the population and little change in school enrollment.

Okay, I was just wondering because that may have a bearing on what we could do.

The analysis of the preceding composite dialogues will be presented in Chapter VI, which follows. The order of analysis will follow the pattern used in presenting the dialogues in this chapter, with analysis of the categories discriminating along the Halpin dimensions preceding that of categories discriminating along the Schutz dimensions.

CHAPTER VI

VERBAL DIMENSIONS OF ADMINISTRATIVE PERFORMANCE: AN ANALYSIS OF THE CONTENT OF PRINCIPALS' UTTERANCES

The objective of this chapter is to present the analysis of the composite dialogues which were developed from the conversations of our sample of principals. The analysis will follow the already established order based upon the following theoretical dimensions: (1) Halpin's Initiating Structure and Consideration dimensions, and (2) Schutz' Inclusion Wanted and Control Wanted dimensions.

The Initiating Structure Dimension

It was found in the analysis presented in Tables 16 and 17 in Chapter V that principals in the Halpin subgroups did differ significantly with respect to mean scores on several language categories. With respect to scores on Halpin's Initiating Structure dimension, it was found that statistically significant differences in square roots of the means were exhibited on two language categories, ATTEMPT and SELF, when subgroups (principals perceived by their teachers as being high and low respectively, on Initiating Structure) were differentiated as to their reception of these scores.

Scrutiny of the square roots of the means on these two language categories shows that principals perceived as being high in Initiating Structure make less use of words in the SELF category, but more use of words in the ATTEMPT category. This difference in the amount of usage of a particular language category is reflected in the lengths of the composite dialogues.

An immediate but perhaps superficial explanation of the lesser use of SELF words by the principals perceived by their teachers as being high in Initiating Structure might be that these principals are able to initiate structure without resorting to substantial use of SELF words like I and me.

With its high level of significance on the Initiating Structure analysis, the category ATTEMPT was an obvious choice for retrieval. While it must be pointed out that this is the only category for which this is true, it is the principals who are perceived by their teachers as being high in Initiating Structure who make greater use of words in the ATTEMPT category, as is reflected in the lengths of the two composite dialogues developed from the retrieved statements.

Retrievals on the ATTEMPT category showed that principals in both groups made extensive use of the entry word try. Principals perceived as being high in Initiating Structure also used the words effort and pursue, while those perceived as being low in Initiating Structure used challenged and struggling in one or two instances.

Principals who are perceived by their teachers as being high in Initiating Structure appear to use entry words from the ATTEMPT category in a positive or direct context, in rather specific statements concerning what they want themselves or their teachers to do. For example, the principal who says "The problem is there and we're going to take action to try to eliminate the problem," is being quite direct and action-oriented.

So is the principal who says "Try and do it that way," and "Especially mention that you know that he is scheduled for testing and that the teacher should pursue that, should see that it gets accomplished."

On the other hand, principals who are perceived by their teachers as being low on the Initiating Structure dimension use words from the ATTEMPT category in a less direct way. Note for example, "I think that if you try something like that, I think along those lines, you may get some success with John, because I think back to the students of my teaching days," and "I think that I'd try to get the Kindergarten through Three using the same door." In both cases the possible strength which might be conveyed by the word "try" is attenuated by the word "think" which precedes it.

After studying the sentences retrieved under the SELF category, one notes that principals perceived by their teachers as being high in Initiating Structure use the word "I" in a context of strength and forcefulness. This context is exemplified in sentences such as "I want to know why you would reject it," and "Oh, I very definitely feel this way." Another statement, "Now this is my responsibility," uses the SELF category word my in a similar context. There is a definite quality about the SELF category sentences uttered by the principals perceived as being high on this dimension. In this respect, note sentences such as "Children that start in Kindergarten, I see them go through our Fourth Grade, I see how they've changed," and "I'm talking about the human values."

By contrast, principals perceived by their teachers as being low in Initiating Structure use SELF category words in a supportive context of cooperation and agreement. For example, note the statements "Yes, I know you can," "I agree with you that the other would be top priority," and

"Now, that's just kind of what I was driving at a little bit earlier, Elaine." In these statements as well as in others spoken by the Low Initiating Structure principals the speaker is agreeing with or supporting teacher-initiated statements.

The discussion of the categories SELF and ATTEMPT has focused on the ways in which these categories discriminate the conversations of principals according to the perceptions of their teachers on the Initiating Structure dimension of the LBDQ. Both the ATTEMPT and SELF categories are logical ones to be studied in terms of our theoretical concern regarding Initiating Structure in organizations, for both categories may be seen as representing a concern with goal-oriented activities.

The Consideration Dimension

It was found that statistically significant differences in square roots of the means were exhibited on an array of language categories when scores of principals perceived as high on Consideration were differentiated from scores of those perceived as low on Consideration. The eight categories which significantly discriminated between High Consideration principals and Low Consideration principals were ACADEMIC, COMMUNICATE, ARTISTIC, OUGHT, SIGN-STRONG, GUIDE, LEGAL, and HIGHER-STATUS. In all cases, it was the principals perceived as low in Consideration who made greater use of words in all of these categories.

It is difficult to develop a satisfactory overall scheme which would link all of these categories together and which would also relate them to the concept of Consideration which, as indicated earlier, has to do with the personalistic orientation of concern of the group leader for his subordinates. We will instead attempt first to study the eight categories individually and search for specific differences in language between the High Consideration principals and the Low Consideration principals.

Three of the discriminating language categories, ACADEMIC, ARTISTIC, and LEGAL, are drawn from the Institutional Contexts sub-section of the Harvard III dictionary, which provides for the specification of the social context of rules and actions. In general, it may be said that these three categories provide a frame of reference for school life. ACADEMIC terms convey the notion of a structured social situation, and provide the immediate setting for the day-to-day action which takes place in schools. LEGAL terms provide for possible implications concerning legal responsibilities which schools have to pupils. The ARTISTIC category contains entry words with an artistic connotation.

After studying the sentences retrieved under the categories from the "institutional contexts" section of the Harvard III dictionary, the following conclusions were drawn:

In regard to the ACADEMIC category, principals perceived as being low in Consideration have a large number of references which are more impersonal and indicative of a structured social situation. Their sentences are replete with words like "evaluate," "required assignments," "school settings," "academic checking," "prescribing a program," "keep up in class," "classifications," "academics," "discipline problems," and "basic things." As far as dictionary entries proper, they make greater use than principals perceived as being high in Consideration of the words school and assignment.

The principals with high Consideration scores have a more varied use of entry words from the ACADEMIC category, for example, besides school, they utilize learning, understood, student, problem, teacher, and record.

Again, it is in the context of usage where the more striking difference is observed. Whereas the Low Consideration principals speak in a structured, impersonal context, the High Consideration principals speak so that through words from the ACADEMIC category, a concern for the individual child comes through.

For example, in various utterances, the High Consideration principal is concerned that an individual child would be academically "wiped out," he conveys a feeling that "student involvement" is important to him, and for the good of the child he respects his parents for they "really understood him."

Examples of sentences where the Low Consideration principals look at the broad picture in a more impersonal way, rather than looking at the individual child follow:

"What per cent of it is educational?"

"We're going to have this special education program in the township going and we'll have a place to put emotionally disturbed children and the culturally deprived and all of the other classifications."

"They'll just either sit there or they'll get themselves involved in another breaking of your rules in the room and then become a discipline problem."

The Low Consideration principals do use some sentences which are more personal in nature. It is important to note that High Consideration principals, however, very rarely use impersonal statements when talking about individual students.

Low Consideration principals look at the pupil just as a pupil and restrict themselves to that aspect of the person, in other words, the child as pupil. The High Consideration principals, on the other hand, look at the pupil as a total person, as an individual who has other parts to him besides what goes on in school. In other words, the Low Consideration principal restricts his talk about children to the child in the school setting, to the child as pupil, for example:

"Well, now, this point of taking tests is a very pertinent point because if it is obvious that he just is not going to be able to take tests and we have to discount this and evaluate him in some other way or we are going to obviously be in trouble."

"I think too, I've seen you working with various kinds of materials prescribing a program for him where you do not lock him into so-called first grade."

This last sentence is very specifically restricted to the school context. Further examples exemplifying this concern for individuals but in the context of the school situation, that is, of judging academic accomplishment only by what goes on in schools, follow:

"The impact at home is bad enough, I would think, atthe present time, and perhaps this kind of thing would upset his whole method of operation in our school."

In contrast, the High Consideration principals are conscious of the pupil as a whole person, as can be readily observed in the following sentences:

"These are the emotional problems and I think this is one of the things I indicated to you and to the mother when we talked about it, when I said we had some reservations about piling one more thing on this child."

"And of course, we go along with that because this is the case I'm thinking of, that we just mentioned earlier, the father felt this boy was learning slowly, but he thought it was a pattern that would always be with him, just as it had always been with him."

"I think both of us felt this, and of course, I met with these parents three years in a row, but I always had a real respect for these parents because I felt they really understood him."

"He thought if somebody did not do the work they should fail, regardless of whether they were in first grade or eighth grade and I asked him if he thought it would help any to keep Scott, you know, back, because this is a particular boy we were talking about."

"I wonder if enough time has lapsed since his mother started working that we might be beginning to see results here of, he walks home with Mike and there is certainly no hurry in getting home and the horseplay is with third-graders, and he is feeling a little bit more confident, I think about the trip home and being alone outdoors."

"Sure, and this is why I thought it was so important that we did not keep this kid back, because, if you know academically, you know, it could have been a good case, but I think it would have just wiped him out completely."

Clearly these sentences exemplify a concern for the pupil as a whole person.

In LEGAL dialogues there is an obvious difference in usage of entry words. The Low Consideration principals rely heavily on terms which are truly "legal" in context, such as police, liability, witness, and accused.

The High Consideration principals, on the other hand, make very little use of the LEGAL category, and the small number of examples available demonstrates a borrowing of LEGAL terms for use in non-legal contexts. In other words, where the Low Consideration principals use LEGAL entry words in legal contexts, the High Consideration principals use whatever LEGAL entry words they do use at another level of meaning. Note, for example, the sentence "Every year I see more evidence that there is very little we can do to change the basic personality." Similar examples are the sentences using entry words justice, registering, and commitment.

On second look at the Low Consideration dialogues we note a consciousness of legal responsibility so obvious that it is hard to tell where to draw the line between LEGAL words used in a legal context and LEGAL words used in a moral context. Indeed it is not clear where to draw the line. We see, for example, a very great consciousness of the legal connotation in these sentences:

"It is the same mother that accused me of beating the child when I spanked him. And I told her it was not a beating, it was a spanking, and I had a witness, you know. I still have a witness, I never spank them without a witness."

These sentences reflect an obvious concern for the law. But, it is sometimes difficult to determine whether the concern is moral or legal, as might be exemplified in the sentence "I think that based on some of the discussions on liability and our responsibility we are going to have to supervise, you know, in this period of from quarter 'til on."

The ARTISTIC category is not a clear discriminator of High and Low Consideration principals on any other basis than amount. First of all, there are comparatively few examples available to utilize the analysis, and secondly, any interesting comments which might be made seem to be equally applicable to both subgroups.

The usage of the ARTISTIC category words exemplifies a borrowing of words from artistic contexts and their utilization in non-artistic contexts. Obviously in every example cited principals could have used other words from a more general or from a more school-oriented context. It is important to note that they have chosen instead words which are more directly associated with the artistic context, such as beautiful, creative, and designed; the theatrical arts context, such as performing and staged; or the psychological context, such as sensitive and image. When verified for level of meaning in a current dictionary,[1] it was found that some of these examples were listed as sixth or seventh examples removed from the meaning generally found in current usage.

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[1] Jess Stein, Ed. in Chief, The Random House Dictionary of the English Language, unabridged edition (New York: Random House, 1966).

Two of the language categories which distinguish High Consideration principals from Low Consideration principals are from the "social-emotional actions" sub-section of the Harvard III dictionary. These categories are COMMUNICATE and GUIDE, and both have to do with the principals' operation in an interpersonal context. While COMMUNICATE is a generalized category referring to the communication process, GUIDE indicates guidance and goal-oriented leadership.

According to the Halpin theory, leaders who are perceived by their subordinates as being high in Consideration are easy to understand, accepting of suggestions made by staff members, and find time to listen to staff members.[1] The usage of COMMUNICATE words by our sample of High Consideration principals makes the point obvious. Note in the High Consideration dialogue example after example of clarifying and supportive instances of COMMUNICATE words. The entry words used are quite ordinary, such as say, saying, talk, and tell, but it is the context which is revealing.

Most often in these examples it is the principal speaking to the teacher in terms of reiterating or clarifying something which that same teacher has previously mentioned or said. We note utterances such as "Are you saying . . . ," "I know what you are going to say," "And as you said," "Of course, I know from what you have already said . . .," and "Yes, that is what I was going to suggest." In all cases the impression is conveyed of a man who cares about what his teachers have to say, who values and takes into consideration their feelings and opinions.

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[1] Halpin, Theory and Research in Administration, p. 89.

Sentences of the Low Consideration prinicpals are quite different from those just discussed. Rather than being clarifying and supportive of the teacher being addressed they are typically indicative of a concern for students, but often in a negative context. For example, "I talked with him about having any friends and he did not seem to have any." At times negative comments are inspired by interactions with parents, for example, "I think in most cases where I've talked to the parents they have not followed up." Instead of finding the considerate tone which is so obvious in the language of the High Consideration principals, we find instead such terse utterances as "You are a teacher and you could say it," "Telling the teacher specifically what?" and "All right, he is educationally retarded, I'm not denying that, and I'm not talking about promoting him." One is not surprised that these principals are not perceived as high in Consideration by their teachers.

In summary, High and Low Consideration principals view their roles in different ways. Low Consideration principals have no examples of clarifying language. The High Consideration principals do a great deal of clarifying and listening, and in a sense, leave themselves wide open. Perhaps Low Consideration principals are defensive.

The Harvard III dictionary assigns the definition "assistance and positive direction" to the GUIDE category. As mentioned above, this is a goal-oriented category which deals with leader-follower relationships and interactions.

A study of the composite dialogues for this category reveals some interesting differences between the High Consideration principals and the Low Consideration principals. High Consideration principals exhibit a concern for helping the child, with teachers providing the guidance. Note utterances such as "Right now we have something that probably you can handle and which you are handling, and I don't think that we will have to go into the home-bound situation," and " . . . at the same time you are reinforcing what the first grade teachers are going to be doing."

Low Consideration principals, on the other hand, look for guidance outside of the immediate situation. For example, children who are moving on to another school are going to receive special help in the new building. "Outside help in reading" is mentioned, as is outside "help during the summer." The help of parents is considered important, for example, in the sentence ending with " . . . we get more done if we do get the help of the parents." Another sentence which also underlines the need for parental guidance reads "And as a consequence the overall effect on Ronnie would be disastrous because he needs his mother's approval."

High Consideration principals, by contrast, try to help the child to solve his own problems. Note the sentence "The problem is there and we're going to take action to try to eliminate the problem or to do something that would help the child to overcome the problem."

Low Consideration principals make more frequent use of the word help while their High Consideration counterparts utilize a more varied group of GUIDE words, including help, handle, let, and reinforcing.

Although OUGHT, SIGN-STRONG, and HIGHER-STATUS, the remaining categories which statistically discriminate the High Consideration principals from the Low Consideration principals come from three different sub-sections of the Harvard III dictionary, they will be studied together because all three may be grouped quite reasonably under a heading expressing concern for structured authority relationships.

Entry words in the OUGHT category designate a moral imperative, a moral obligation or duty. Both High Consideration and Low Consideration principals make preponderant use of the entry word should in their utterances, while there is among both a sprinkling of other OUGHT words, such as must, due, and ought. Therefore, again we must go to an examination of the meaning of the utterances to see if statistical differences are reflected in the language used.

On the surface it would appear that both High Consideration and Low Consideration principals utilize OUGHT category entry words in similar fashion, that is, in a context of concern for the child. A deeper level analysis indicates a linkage with the analysis given for the ACADEMIC category, that is, once again the High Consideration principals look upon the child as a whole person, not just as a pupil having relationships to the school. High Consideration principals are aware of the child in a wider sense than the Low Consideration principals. Note the examples for each group:

High Consideration Principals

"And then, what the teachers have been doing is, you will look to see which youngsters should not be in the same room with another one, whether it is by being related to them as a sibling or a cousin, or something like that, or because of their behavior, you know, when they are together."

"I think that myself, after looking at these things would probably recommend that he be passed on to second grade, but I think the parents should probably be told that if he does not start doing the work, and so forth, that he probably will have to, because he is a little behind now, according to this, if you want to go by this."

"A school day is not a play day, and I think they should dress appropriately."

Low Consideration Principals

"You say that whatever action that the student takes that you think corporal punishment should be used against, this should be done immediately."

"The only reason I seemed at all hesitant is that I don't want you to, and in this particular case, I don't think we should be failing this boy as a punishment, you know."

"Yes, you must have some in your own mind, some standards."

Some examples from the Low Consideration principals convey a certain absolute sense, as does the last sentence quoted. The High Consideration principals, on the other hand, qualify, and therefore tone down the absoluteness of their statements. Another way of saying this is that while the Low Consideration principals tend to be more absolute, the High Consideration principals tend to allow for alternatives. Note the following examples:

High Consideration Principals

"All right now, I don't know whether we should say maturity, or effort, or cooperation, or one of the things I'd like to get at as far as this is concerned, are youngsters who as third-graders might be ones who would profit from using the learning center on an independent basis."

"But, understanding children, this will never be true and he should feel that they are teachable and are learning and are not in any severe problems."

"I know you have 20 some others in your room and to devote as much time as you should with Todd can be quite a problem."

"Must these two fellows? (Suggests a questioning kind of thing, indicating having alternatives in mind.)"

"You ought to mention this to the mother."

Low Consideration Principals

Note the sense of absoluteness in the following examples:

". . . I think that maybe for Randy in particular you should make a point,"

"So he knows where he is and that the school as such has confidence in him at this point and where it is he should be going."

"I think this is something we should be absolutely certain it is doing for him."

"Dr. Joyce believes that structuring is the modus operandi that we should use in schools."

"And the teacher has to wait until the last, must have used all available remedies and solutions to the problem and then the child should be sent to the office."

"You must have some in your own mind, some standards."

"If we need some supplemental things, then we should get them."

SIGN-STRONG language is language indicative of strength or a capacity for action, and both High Consideration and Low Consideration principals utilize a variety of SIGN-STRONG entry words. High Consideration principals typically use words like strong, give, benefit, take, help, and able, while their counterparts say could, give, handle, competent, takes, and control.

While again, as in the analysis of previous categories, both types of principals express a concern for the pupil, there is a subtle distinction involved in the context utilized. The High Consideration principals talk about children in a way that indicates a deep psychological understanding of the child's needs. Note for example, sentences such as the following:

"This kid needs somebody strong."

"This boy is very bright, and he has a lot of potential as far as leadership, but he is extremely impatient and intolerant of people."

There is a concern for discipline in the context of love being received from the parents at home, as the following sentence shows:

"And when he's (the father) there he gives it, the discipline, but it's without love, and it has to be with the love, and this seems to be wrong."

The whole tone of the High Consideration principals' language on this category may be summarized by the sentence "Well, there is a great deal, I think, we can do for each other, with each other, for the eventual benefit of the child."

These are sentences which convey a climate of caring concern. The tone of the Low Consideration principals' language on the other hand, is more intense, more vigorous, more reflective of the definition applied to this language category. In other words, although the Low Consideration principals also show a concern for the child, their use of SIGN-STRONG language conveys the impression of a more vigorous, more robust, an "appealing-to-structure" kind of language. Note, for example, utterances such as the following.

"Let the teacher give it to him."

"He was in a boys' home . . . taken away from the mother."

"I wish we could kind of erase all grade lines."

"I believe next year we have both these men teachers in sixth grade, unless the Army takes them . . ."

". . . who is going to have control, present control."

"Okay, but what is Elaine going to be able to do with this guy . . . "

The HIGHER-STATUS category denotes positions or occupations with high social status and is indicative of a structured social situation. Status mentions by High Consideration principals on this category have to do with "within-school" status positions, such as teacher, instructor, or psychologist, or, when references are made to the parents, it is usually in the context of father or mother individually. The Low Consideration principals, on the other hand, speak more impersonally, using the form parents in the plural. In fact, as the following examples will indicate, the High Consideration principals consider parents as people, by actually communicating with them. The interesting point is that when High Consideration principals mention the parent it is in the context which indicates support of the teachers in their school. It is possible then, that if principals speak of parents in such a way which may be viewed by teachers as being supportive of them, that this in turn might tend to make the teachers view their principals as supportive, which in turn would lead to teachers rating their principals as high on Consideration. Note the following examples taken from the language of the High Consideration principals:

"Well, no, not as far as, we do not, as far as placing children, we seldom if ever will place or make a change on a parent request."

"And the father said you got a lot of goddam nerve sending them over to my house to see if we are clean enough.

"Well, whoever knows where her locker is, just dump the rest of that stuff in that bag, and bring it into the office and if mother comes for it, fine, and if mother does not come, I'm not going to call her.

"And then, of course father will threaten to get somebody fired."

One notes in the dialogue of the Low Consideration principals an absence of this context of teacher support. Yet, neither do we find examples of Low Consideration principals not supporting their teachers.

Summary of the Halpin Analysis

Some general impressions might be drawn from a retrospective glance over the analysis of language categories which discriminated principals along the Consideration dimension.

Concerning the High Consideration principals, we note a concern for the child as a whole person together with an openness to ideas and alternative as voiced by other people and the drawing in of as many of these suggestions as possible. These principals appear less authoritarian and more supportive of their teachers generally. This last comment relates especially to the clarifying language which was noted in sentences retrieved under the COMMUNICATE category. These High Consideration principals convey the impression of supporting teachers against parental pressures or interference, and sometimes, even against pressures coming from the child.

Perhaps the most striking finding of our analysis of the COMMUNICATE category is just this, that High Consideration principals use a great deal of clarifying language and Low Consideration principals use none. High Consideration principals listen a great deal and through verbal cues let their teachers know that they are listening.

Concerning the Low Consideration principals, the general impression conveyed in terms of all eight categories is that of an overriding concern with structure, an absolute tone, and a prevailing impersonality.

The Inclusion Wanted Dimension

As we reported in Chapter III, in interpersonal relationships, the need for inclusion has to do with maintaining a satisfactory relationship with other people in regard to interaction or belongingness. This need has to do with wanting to be with other people, with interacting and mingling, being "included" in activities, and belonging to groups and organizations. It manifests itself in wanting to be attended to, and attracting attention and interest. Specifically, the Inclusion Wanted dimension has to do with behavior which the individual prefers others to initiate toward him. Behavior relating to wanting to be included, to having attention paid to the person, and to being distinguished from others, is primarily inclusion behavior.

The analysis of variance program pointed to an in-depth examination of the meaning of sentences to be retrieved under the SELVES, ARTISTIC, ACADEMIC, and THOUGHT-FORM categories.

It is interesting to observe at this point that the ACADEMIC and ARTISTIC categories were already utilized in the Halpin analysis. However, their use here is to be viewed strictly in terms of the Inclusion Wanted dimension of the FIRO theory.

Since both High Inclusion Wanted principals and Low Inclusion Wanted principals make equal use of entry words we and our, we shall have to look deeper for discriminating language factors.

High Inclusion Wanted principals use we in a truly inclusive sense, actually drawing in the opinions of teachers to whom they are speaking, rather than making cut and dry statements and using we but actually meaning I. Note, for example, the following sentences:

"How do you think we should handle the conference?"

"Have you done anymore thinking, what would you recommend as far as the way in which we talk to the parents?"

On the other hand, even though Low Inclusion Wanted principals may use the term Let's, it doesn't mean that they are actively eliciting teacher involvement. Neither are they going to take care of the problem themselves.

The Low Inclusion Wanted principals direct the teachers to do the work rather than asking them to share in the work, or just simply asking them to do the work. The following sentences convey this impression:

"Why don't you, no, just be sure that we get a written report to the next teacher."

"What would you say to Mrs. Thomas, okay, not this is what we're going to say, yes."

These principals do not actively elicit teacher involvement.

The brevity of the composite essays on the ARTISTIC category reflects the low frequency of this category occurrence. In spite of the paucity of sentences, some relevant information is revealed in a study of sentence meaning. Insights are gained not so much from the ARTISTIC entry words used, for both High Inclusion Wanted and Low Inclusion Wanted principals speak in terms of sensitive, creative, create, perform, and beautifully. Some statements by the High Inclusion Wanted principals are more "inclusive" in their terms of reference. Note the following distinctions:

High Inclusion Wanted Examples

" . . . when they are all together for the music."

" . . . because if they are aware of that and sensitive to it, then they are going to take it into their planning."

"Would you think probably, taking a clue from something you said, would you think that probably a youngster . . . might still be a creative thinker . . . ?"

"Let's just point out to him the progress that he's made and let him draw the conclusions . . . . "

"Maybe it was because it was just a different form of grouping."

The High Inclusion Wanted principals use language which includes the individual in the group. The Low Inclusion Wanted principals' composite dialogue does not generally contain instances of similar usage.

Both High Inclusion Wanted and Low Inclusion Wanted principals utilize a variety of entry words from the ACADEMIC category. High Inclusion Wanted principals make use primarily of school and teacher, but also use understood, learning, class, and teaching. Low Inclusion Wanted principals especially utilize school, but also use grade, teacher, student, and problem, among others.

We noted with interest a proliferation of sentences utilizing a negative connotation in the speech of the Low Inclusion Wanted principals. By contrast, a positive note prevails in the speech of the High Inclusion Wanted principals. Where a negative construction is used, it is tempered by some positive aspect, such as in the following statements:

"His test scores really are not too bad."

"So the median I.Q. is 109, so he's not, you know, that far below the rest of the class."

The entry words in the THOUGHT-FORM category are concerned with units and styles of reasoning. These words are task-oriented words, reflective of an intellectual understanding of situations. An initial perusal of retrieved sentences revealed that Low Inclusion Wanted principals used the entry word problem quite heavily, as compared with the High Inclusion Wanted principals, who rarely used it. The latter used a variety of entry words, such as relation, why, beliefs, example, and relative. Both seemed to use the word idea.

It was therefore necessary to study the sentences retrieved in order to look for discriminating differences in usage. High Inclusion Wanted principals take into consideration the teachers to whom they are speaking, while Low Inclusion Wanted principals use more impersonal contexts. The sentences which follow underline these distinctions.

High Inclusion Wanted Principals

"All right, what are your ideas on her for next year, in the beginning?"

"I want to know why you would reject it."

Low Inclusion Wanted Principals

"Let that be a teaching experience instead of a problem."

"You have to work with them in such a way that if you have an idea you have to plant it within this individual, so that when the conditions are right they will come up with the idea that you wanted them to have."

"The only thing that may happen now if this becomes a problem so that he disrupts the rest of the class then we could look into the home-bound tutor."

"This is not the idea at all."

"Well, I'm not too sure that outlining or structuring *per se* is completely valid in every area, because it would seem to me that a child could develop some bizarre concepts if he didn't branch with ideas."

"Now, actually, all schools need to keep some kind of child accounting system, and we tried to get this information from this state in the West and this school."

"I think the fear of the unknown, of the child being sent to the office, not knowing what's going to happen, as opposed to knowing that the principal is going to administer corporal punishment, an automatic thing."

"Well, you always have a sort of a dilemma here because, on the one hand, the payoff in helping a child with his individual assignment appears to the child to be instant success, whereas working on the basics, the payoff seems to be down the road, and it's the same problem our learning disabilities therapist has."

The Control Wanted Dimension

The need for Control in interpersonal relationships has to do with maintaining a satisfactory relationship with other people in regard to power and influence. This need has to do with controlling one's situation to some degree in order that the environment may be predictable. Specifically, the Control Wanted dimension has to do with maintaining a psychologically comfortable relation with people with respect to eliciting behavior from them somewhere on a dimension ranging from always being controlled by them to never being controlled by them.[1]

Control Wanted behavior is manifested in behavior toward others controlling the self. According to Schutz,[1] expressions of independence and rebellion exemplify lack of willingness to be controlled, while compliance, submission, and taking orders indicate varying degrees of accepting the control of others. The need to be controlled also refers to having responsibility taken away.

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[1] Schutz, *The Interpersonal Underworld*, p. 18

Only by looking at the data was it possible to see if there were any verbal distinguishers of High Control Wanted and Low Control Wanted principals. Statistically significant results were obtained on eight language categories on the Control Wanted dimension, namely, ACADEMIC, UNDERSTATE, LEGAL, COMMUNICATE, SIGN-STRONG, OUGHT, APPROACH, and SELVES. Retrievals from these eight language categories were studied in a search for distinguishing verbal patterns.

Two of the categories, ACADEMIC and LEGAL, concern themselves with institutional contests. In other words, the frame of reference for retrieved sentences is action set in academic or legal terms, respectively.

Both High Control Wanted and Low Control Wanted principals use a variety of words from the ACADEMIC category. The High Control Wanted principals make abundant use of the word school, and moderate use of words like problem, teacher, testing, and learn. The principals who are below the mean on this dimension stress no particular word and make equal mention of such words as grade, problem, school, and teacher.

In attempting to make some judgment concerning whether there are distinct differences in how the two subgroups of principals use words from the academic category, the data was carefully studied. The High Control Wanted principals made more mention of individual children and characteristically mentioned these children by name.[1] These principals are interested in children as persons, as persons who fulfill other roles in life, in addition to that of pupil. These principals are quite comfortable with suggestions or comments made by parents. Sentences exemplifying these interpretations follow:

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[1] Ibid., p. 23.

> "But as far as a real concern about their alibility to read, it would be more of a concern for Peter than for Michael, where Michael's concern is the more general."

> "The parents, as I understand, and I think I got this information from her, are interested in Scott being tested."

> "Well, Daniel has a behavioral problem, and he's a poor student to boot."

> "Do you think her (the mother) pride is in the way of recognizing the real problem?"

> "Sure, and this is why I thought it was so important that we didn't keep this kid back because, if, you know, academically, you know, it could have been a good case, but I think it would have just wiped him out completely."

> "I don't know, maybe I'm just assuming something, but I imagine he's always had women teachers, he has only his mother at home, or has had."

At the same time, principals high on the Control Wanted dimension indicate an awareness of the structural controls inherent in the academic context, as is indicated in the statements which follow:

> "As you are aware, the very old traditional patterns of instruction and self-contained classrooms are breaking down in this school and it is a gradual thing."

> "We've never had a hard and fast rule on it because teachers have probably heard about it."

> "Look, there isn't a district policy and there's never been a school policy on it."

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[1] For example, when a count was made of the number of times children were mentioned by name in statements retrieved on the ACADEMIC category, it was found that High Control Wanted principals mentioned children by name 28 times, as opposed to six times by Low Control Wanted principals.

As for the Low Control Wanted principals, they do not characteristically mention individual children by name, but refer to them impersonally by the pronoun "he" or "him". When it comes to parents, these principals pull back, and become a bit defensive. Perhaps these principals, being low on the Control Wanted dimension, are demonstrating that they will not allow parents to control their decisions. The following sentences exemplify these points:

"Was he one of the ones that you recommended for the psychologist to test?"

"He (the father) isn't going to get, you know, his pick of teachers around here."

"And the only reason I can agree with that philosophy, I don't think we're necessarily wrong, is that it's their kid, you know."

A more restricted concern for the child as pupil only, is reflected in these sentences:

"If we can be convinced that third grade and that his whole educational future will be that much better in 1969 than it will be in 1968, then let's repeat him."

"Could there be a problem, too much of a hurdle for him if we were to just move him on a basis of merely accomplishment, academic accomplishment?"

As was indicated in the Halpin analysis, sentences retrieved under the LEGAL category suggest usage in a moral as well as a legal context. It is sometimes difficult to draw the line between the two.

As for the entry words used, principals scoring above the mean on Control Wanted utilize several, with responsible or responsibility having the most frequent mention. The principals scoring below the mean use words associated primarily with questions of legality, such as police and witness. The contexts in which they use them are more directly reflective of legal concerns, for example:

"Did they report it to the police?"

"I still have a witness, I never spank them without a witness."

These sentences are uttered by principals who scored below the mean on the Control Wanted dimension. This should mean that they would show an unwillingness to be controlled. Yet, their language belies a responsiveness to legal constraints. Most of these sentences were uttered, however, by principals from schools beset by problems of overcrowding and racial tension. Perhaps this is language therefore which reflects overriding community pressures, rather than internal needs of the men.

UNDERSTATE entry words are generally adjectives or adverbs connoting doubt or uncertainty. These words tend to modify or "tone down" otherwise more direct statements and are indicative of a circumspection of statement.

The two subgroups of principals separate quite easily on the UNDERSTATE category, with the High Control Wanted principals making noticeable use of the adjective little, along with a modest use of the words like, seem, and something.

The Low Control Wanted principals utilize a variety of UNDERSTATE words, such as sort, some, something, but, and possibility.

On further examination of statements by the High Control Wanted principals, it was found that in eight of eleven utterances where the word little occurs, it is used in the diminutive form, in speaking of a child, for example:

" . . . this little Fiore . . . ."

" . . . Craig is a dear little boy."

" . . . she is a dear little girl."

"This little boy . . . "

" . . . . he's such a cocky little guy . . . "

" . . . this little guy . . . "

This indicates an almost affectionate way of dealing with pupils, and certainly highlights an interested, personal manner of talking about children. Once again, these and other sentences based on retrievals under this category point toward a deep interest in individual children and a way of thinking about them as whole persons. This is further exemplified in the following retrievals:

"Yes, I think this guy (the father) is a fairly masculine type who is pretty agressive, and I don't think Byron is this type of person, and so the identification here is difficult, I think."

"Maybe he'll find someone else to emulate, and become a little less effeminate."

In spite of their use of UNDERSTATE words the High Control Wanted principals preserve somewhat more specificity and directness in their statements, as compared with the Low Control Wanted principals. The latter create the impression of more understatement through their use of more than one UNDERSTATE word.

The resulting impression is one of generality and vagueness. One isn't quite sure what they mean. The following examples will illustrate these points:

"That gets to be pretty messy, but that is a possibility."

"I mean he does take and he does get involved in these little bitty fights somewhat."

"But the school has a function, it has a role, and I see that role only going so far."

"I think that if you try something like that, I think along those lines, you may get some success with Mark, because I think back to the students of my teaching days."

Even in these four examples one notes a presence of other words which are not UNDERSTATE entry words but which could very easily have been included in that category. Words like pretty and bitty carry an additional sense of vagueness and unclear communication.

In other studies utilizing the General Inquirer System, it has been found that extensive use of UNDERSTATE words indicates defensiveness.[1] One implication for this study might be that, judging from the location of the schools of the majority of Low Control Wanted principals, these principals had to develop a defensive style as a matter of self-defense.

The entry words in both the COMMUNICATE and APPROACH categories are concerned with behavioral processes, and specifically with social-emotional actions. While the COMMUNICATE category has to do with processes of transmitting meaning, the APPROACH category is concerned with movement toward others.

The principals who are above the mean on Control Wanted use a variety of COMMUNICATE verbs, including express, revealed, call, and referred, forms of tell and talk, with said and saying being slightly more emphasized.

Principals scoring below the mean on this dimension also use an assortment of verbs, such as speak, specifying, deal, and argue, but in their speech, forms of say and tell are more common.

We note again that the speech of High Control Wanted principals is supportive of their teachers and clarifying in nature. This again conveys the notion of a certain openness, of principals who invite assistance from teachers in making decisions. They are willing to share their responsibilities. Note the presence of comments such as:

"But you are saying . . . "

"And as you said, ... "

"Do you think . . . referred to the psychologist?

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[1] Stone, et al., The General Inquirer, p. 302.

"Express the concern on Joshua."

" . . . we'll talk further along those lines . . . . "

"So what you're saying . . . . "

Low Control Wanted principals are more specific, more restricted in their use of COMMUNICATE words. They are more direct, more authoritarian, less suggestive in pointing out courses of action to teachers. Note the following:

"They, the parents, are waiting for you to tell them something about their child, you know."

" . . . if you don't want any help, you're specifying this."

"I think it's my figure, the figure and the office that I represent here . . . "

" . . . I'm not sure we can talk to anybody outside of our own school."

Two rather clear subcategories of APPROACH entry words are utilized by the two sub-sets of principals. The High Control Wanted principals make almost exclusive use of the verb come, and typically in a context of physical approach. The verb contact is also used in the same context.

The Low Control Wanted principals primarily use forms of three verbs, involve, give, and come. They also use approach as a noun, and these retrieved sentences were included here, even though the category APPROACH is one restricted to verb forms. In addition to using different entry words, the Low Control Wanted principals utilize them in a different context, a non-physical context of contributing, although this may be in a negative sense, for example:

"I know that he's not cooperating."

"But then, that's giving in to his parents, too."

" . . . and he does get involved in these little bitty fights."

> "Now, we come back to this question relative to just slipping him along."

As indicated earlier in the Consideration analysis, the SIGN-STRONG category is defined by words connoting strength or a capacity for action. Neither principal subgroup utilizes any particular entry word. The range of SIGN-STRONG words utilized by the High Control Wanted principals includes take, give, keep, responsibility, capable, and fought. Low Control Wanted principals also make use of take and keep but also include able, strong, and fight in their utterances.

Because entry word choice does not discriminate our two principal groups, we must look for other aspects of language which might uncover differences. Both subgroups' dialogues contain statements where reference is made to parents. We find that High Control Wanted principals are protective of their teachers, as in the sentence "I just didn't want the Schneiders to give the new person a hard time." The High Control Wanted principal doesn't allow parents to control him, as the following two sentences exemplify:

> "This, right, she (the mother) fought at first, but I think she realizes that well, maybe there's something to it."

> "But in any case, what I ended up doing was, I got them, I told the mothers to take them home."

These principals again demonstrate that they recognize that children have outside of school facets to their total personality:

> "Now he needs either camp activity, a camp experience away from home with some boys, where he can prove to himself that he's capable of taking care of himself."

> "We don't have time, we don't have enough time to give them the poetry, the things that you said were really important, and I said we'll take time then, we'll do a little less math."

The tone of parent-inspired comments by Low Control Wanted principals is one of acquiscing to parents, sometimes in an almost defensive manner, for example:

"It's their child, and you know, why bother fighting it?"

". . . , and then, if they don't feel like it's all right, then we won't fight it.

". . . he's not going to take his kid out."

The Low Control Wanted principals often speak in impersonal terms, as is indicated in the following statements:

"The offense has to be grave enough, has to be serious enough that the teacher needs the help of the principal."

"They (the teachers) expect the administration to do many of the things that the teachers could be doing as far as working with the parents."

"We keep a very good set of records on these youngsters and establish a definite guidance program that follows them."

There is a quality of directness in these statements.

The OUGHT category is used to designate a moral imperative, an obligation or duty. In both the High Control Wanted and Low Control Wanted dialogues, most of the sentences tagged with the OUGHT category contain the entry word should, although there is modest use of ought and must. It is impossible, therefore, to separate the two subgroups of principals on the basis of choice of entry word and it becomes necessary to search for differences in contextual usage.

The High Control Wanted principals generally exhibit more of a concern for individual children, although this quality is not totally lacking in statements of Low Control Wanted principals. The High Control Wanted principals' retrievals convey an impression of concern and a deep understanding of children through sentences like the following:

"Should I put Peter Michaels with Mary or do either of these need her?"

"She doesn't have to, no, she shouldn't because they are two of the same ilk."

"But, understanding children, this will never be true and he should feel that at least they are teachable and are learning and are not in any severe problems."

There are just as many instances in either subgroup of the principal soliciting the teacher's opinion.

A quality which does come through in the Low Control Wanted principals' language is a certain impersonality which is no doubt due to structure-oriented references and impersonal references to children. Both of these traits are manifested in the statements which follow:

" . . . structuring is the modus operandi that we should use in schools."

"If we need some supplemental things then we should get them."

"Maybe we ought to think in terms of less groups and more flexibility."

"Yes, you must have some in your own mind, some standards."

" . . . and then the child should be sent to the office."

" . . . I seriously wonder if we ought not to, . . . double-promote this child."

" . . . or somebody thinks that somebody should be kept back . . . but it should be a very, very strong or good case, in order to do this."

It is not surprising that for the SELVES category, with its short list of entry words, the principals cannot be distinguished by entry word preference. We are again forced to draw our conclusions on the basis of contextual usage. Both subgroups make equal use of the inclusive "we" which includes the teacher being addressed.

We find after searching for distinguishing features concerning this category that statements by the Low Control Wanted principals have a feature which is missing in the speech of their counterparts. The Low Control Wanted principals betray a certain negativeness and helplessness in the face of what can be done to help pupils. Note these examples:

"I'll admit that he's been everything that you've said, you know, and then it isn't our fault."

"Because there isn't a whole lot that we can do, that we can do to reach him, you know."

"However, we do inherit children from other areas where there is little or nothing about them."

"And I believe we probably would run into a lot of trouble."

"Okay, I was just wondering because that may have a bearing on what we could do."

"Of course, you know this is out of our domain."

Summary of the Schutz Analysis

We note in the speech of the High Control Wanted principals a positive tone and personal interest in the teachers to whom they are speaking. These principals show an openness to ideas and suggestions made by others plus the ability to utilize in their own decision-making and planning the ideas and suggestions of their teachers. There are indications of these principals supporting their teachers and protecting them from parents and pupils. In terms of the child, we note that principals above the mean on Inclusion Wanted and Control Wanted view the child as a whole person with outside-of-school facets to his personality, which they take into consideration when making within-school decisions concerning the child.

The speech of principals who are below the mean on the Inclusion Wanted and Control Wanted dimensions creates a general impression of impersonality, negativeness, and some defensiveness. This interpretation is based upon language usage which contains references to legal and structural elements. The consequent impersonal tone in the language conveys the effect of an impersonal attitude toward teachers and children. Instead of speaking in a personal way as do the High Inclusion Wanted principals and the High

Control Wanted principals these principals depend upon their role of principal, making appeal to its structurally-oriented aspects.

The Residual List

Earlier in this chapter, mention was made of the words which are printed on a "Residual List" by the computer because they are not among those listed as entry words in the categories of the Harvard III dictionary, through which all the text was passed. 5,730 such words remain to be identified.

It was found that 1,211 of the work spaces had been used by forms of the verb "to have," for example, "have, having, has, and had." These, and other words which were not critical to the study were:

Word	Count
this	746
like	142
okay	115
oh	104
through	60
quite	27
hmm	25
whatever	15
without	13
stuff	12

Accounting for these words reduced the work space from 5,730 to 3,260 words remaining to be identified.

Other words handled in the same way were:

Word	Count
Proper Names of Staff and Pupils	539
Numerals Spelled Out	530
Technical Names of Teaching Materials, Kits, & Tests	72
Specific Time References	68
Specific Place Names	49
Words Mispelled	5

With these words accounted for, 1,943 residual words remained for examination as to their relevance and importance to language as it is used by principals when speaking to their teachers. These are the words which are peculiar to this particular sample of principals.

While 1,184 of the residual words, among them the more interesting ones, had very low counts of from one to four, those words that had only one count were by far in the majority. The remaining 759 residual words had counts ranging from five to 55. While words with very low counts are not critical to this particular analysis by virtue of their low frequency counts, they do represent additional words that potentially may be important to the refinements of an administrative dictionary. Words with counts of from two to four are included among the following, and they may be considered words specifically oriented to the school situation.

Words Having Counts from Two to Four

association
self-contained (classroom)
counselor
educable
elementary
facilities
first-graders
follow-up
fourth-graders
full-time
integrate,-ed
kit,-s
mark,-ed
modify,-ed
monotonous
non-textbook
noontime
note-taking
outgoing
outlining
over-achieving
overall
perceptually
pilot
placement
preview
priority
project,-s
promote,-ion
racial
rapport
readiness
recess
referral
remedial
scholastically
self-control
self-analysis
self-assurance
senior
strategy
superficial
supervise,-ing
superintendent
supplement
therapist
traditional
tuition
volunteer

The remaining 759 residual words had counts ranging from five to 55.

Certainly these words might include some with potential for use in modifying the dictionary and refining it to represent administrative usage. These remaining words were examined as to their possible effect on the categories had they been included as part of the dictionary and actually tallied.

As a first step in seeking to attach some meaningful interpretation to their potential use as dictionary entries we might cluster them into two "supercategories," depending upon whether the words appear to be structure-oriented or person-oriented. From this general orientation, it would be easier to see whether they would best be utilized in modifying existing dictionary categories or in developing new categories. These potential dictionary words are listed below in two groups, being included in the group with which they seem to have more affinity, theoretically speaking.

Person-Oriented Words

additional
appropriate
care
child
difficulty,-ies
disabilities
explain
extra-s
gee
glad
second-graders
third-graders
fifth-graders
guidance
guys
handicapped
hopes
human
itinerant
play,-s
recommend,-ed
regroup,-ing
tremendous,-ly
tutor, tutoring

Structure-Oriented Words

academically
administer,-ed
arithmetic
classroom
corporal
curriculum
faculty
filmstrip
folder
force, forced
general
gotten
guidance
gym
homeroom
intermediate
I.Q.
kindergarten
made
per cent
plan,-s
planning
playground
preparation
primary
primer
recommendation
retain,ed,-ing
retention
schedule
scheduling
sent
separate,-ing,-ed
spelling
split
staffing
strength-s
tape
television
text, textbook
unit,-s
watch,-ed,-ing
workbooks
workshops
written

In terms of words which appear to be particularly relevant to the principals in the school situation the following six are of special interest, and warrant further investigation.

Word	Number of Times Actually Used
child	55
classroom	33
schedule,-s,-ing	20
recommend	14
care	13
guidance	12

Between them these six words took up 147 work spaces. Because of their relatively high frequency counts they should be seriously considered for inclusion in the development of an administrative dictionary. They should be included in the dictionary for future passes through the data.

After studying our residual list carefully, we have concluded that there are enough words reflective of the specific school administration situation to suggest that it would be fruitful research to utilize these residual words in modifying existing categories or in creating new categories for application in subsequent inquiries into the verbal behavior of the school administrator.

At this point we mention a finding related to output in terms of total words and sentences spoken per subject. Each principal used an average of 408 different words in his conversations. In a sense this figure represents the totality of the principal's working vocabulary, a vocabulary which he uses in carrying out the daily functions which relate to his office.

In the next chapter we will summarize the various phases of this study and conclude with comments relevant to further efforts in the field of language analysis as applied to the problem of language usage in the performance of the administrative task.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

In the preceding chapters we presented the various facets of an investigation whose intent it was to explore the area of administrative verbal behavior. This investigation opens up a new approach to the study of administrative performance, for no previous research in the literature has dealt with the spoken language of school administrators.

In Chapters I and II we presented a review of the literature and the theoretical framework upon which this study is based. In Chapter III we introduced the research design and a new computer-assisted content analysis methodology. In Chapters IV and V we reported the results of the statistical applications and presented the composite dialogues which represent the verbal data base which was examined. In Chapter VI we set forth our analysis of the content of the principals' utterances as contained in the composite dialogues.

In this chapter we are summarizing the various aspects of the study and presenting the most important results of the investigation. In addition, we are presenting certain conclusions regarding the findings and suggesting implications for practice and further research in educational administration.

Summary

Formulation of the Problem

Although administrative theorists and researchers have long been sensitive to the importance of linguistic performance in carrying out the administrative task, no investigator has sought to determine in a systematic way whether certain linkages exist between the speech of school administrators and other aspects of their behavior. This study represents the first attempt to determine:

(1) whether (and if so, the degree to which) the administrator's language is related to staff perceptions of his administrative behavior.

(2) whether (and if so, the degree to which) the administrator's language is related to certain measures of his interpersonal needs.

(3) whether significant relationships exist between verbal behavior and selected personal history variables.

These questions provide the framework for developing the central hypotheses of this study.

Theoretical Framework

The basic theory is the social systems construct of Getzels and Guba. This theory presents in broad sociological and psychological terms a framework of social behavior in which the administrative behavior of the school administrator can be viewed. In this conceptualization, a given act of administrative behavior can be conceived of as deriving simultaneously from both the personal needs and dispositions of the administrator (the personal dimension), and from his perceived role-expectations of the particular situation in which he works (the normative dimension).

Within this general context of interpersonal or social behavior this inquiry proceeded to make a comparative study of the administrative behavior of school principals along dimensions derived from two different frameworks:

The Sociopsychological Framework, in which the dimensions used are those developed in:

(1) the administrative leadership theory of Andrew W. Halpin (emerging from the Ohio Leadership Studies). According to this theory administrative leadership behavior can be defined along two dimensions called "Initiating Structure" and "Consideration."

By "Initiating Structure" Halpin means that aspect of the leader's behavior which delineates the relationship between himself and the members of the group and establishes well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure.

By "Consideration" he refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust and warmth in the relationship between leader and the members of his staff.

(2) the interpersonal relationships theory of William B. Schutz. The FIRO theory is used on the assumption that the administrative behavior with which we are concerned here is largely a matter of interpersonal relationships. This theory states that an individual's interpersonal behavior is determined by the need-dispositions which govern his role-expectations. The dimensions along which Schutz attempts to measure these needs are:

Inclusion -- the need to maintain a satisfactory relation between self and other people with respect to attention and interaction.

Control -- the need to maintain a satisfactory relation with others with respect to power and influence so the individual can control the situation in order that his environment can be predictable.

Affection -- the need to maintain a satisfactory relation with others in respect to love and affection.

The Sociolinguistic Framework, in which the concepts drawn upon are largely those derived from the suggestions of Bernstein. Bernstein asserts that the consequences which a given social relation takes are often transmitted in terms of discernible syntactic and lexical selections. Differently stated, linguistic code is the expression of the individual's role, and it is through a role that a person is able to enter into persistent forms of interaction in a social system.

Hypotheses

Within the above theoretical orientation, the following hypotheses were developed:

Hypothesis One:

There will be differences in the spoken language characteristics of the subjects, in terms of the kinds of words which different subgroups of subjects use.

Hypothesis Two:

There will be differences in the spoken language characteristics of the sample in terms of differences in the subjects' socioeconomic background. The more homogeneous the subjects' background, the more similar will be their verbal behavior.

Hypothesis Three:

Differences in the subjects' scores on Halpin's LBDQ instrument will be related to differences in their linguistic behavior.

Design and Methodology

In this study a computer-based approach to language analysis was utilized in examining language differences among school principals classified by their performance along dimensions related to our basic theory. The computer program system used was the General Inquirer System, which was developed at Harvard in 1961 for content analysis research problems in the behavioral sciences. The availability of such a computerized system of content analysis made it possible to carry out this study, for it not only allowed for a more thorough scanning of larger samples of data but introduced a systematic rigor which is absent from manual approaches to content analysis. The program systematically operates with a constant set of language categories for analyzing discrete words within a sentence or utterance. The language categories represent an operational explication of the theoretical frame of reference which the researcher is using, and serve as "rules" which are used within that theory for discriminating one kind of speech from another.

The General Inquirer System consists of a series of procedures in which the use of a dictionary of language categories is crucial. The various parts of the system include:

(1) procedures for preparing text.

(2) procedures for looking up words found as entries in the dictionary of language categories, and assigning content analysis categories (tagging text).

(3) procedures for tag tally, which is a count of the number of times each category appears in the tagged text.

(4) a retrieval program which reads questions prepared by the researcher and searches tagged text for statements which match the question specifications.

(5) a residual list which contains words searched for but not found in the dictionary of language categories.

The language categories utilized in this research were selected from the 83 categories of the Harvard III psychosociological dictionary, a general purpose dictionary for research in the social sciences. These 27 language categories were selected according to pre-established criteria based on the theory utilized in this study. The following categories were utilized:

SELF
SELVES
OTHER
SMALL-GROUP
TIME-REFERENCE
THOUGHT-FORM
AROUSAL
URGE
CAUSE
OUGHT
COMMUNICATE
APPROACH
GUIDE
CONTROL
FOLLOW
ATTEMPT
WORK
GET
ACADEMIC
ARTISTIC
LEGAL
HIGHER-STATUS
LOWER-STATUS
OVERSTATE
UNDERSTATE
SIGN-STRONG
SIGN-ACCEPT

Selection of the Subjects

The subjects in this sample were male elementary school principals of schools in suburban school systems of the greater Chicago area. Because we were interested in relating characteristics of verbal behavior to socioeconomic criteria, a method of stratified random sampling was utilized in selecting the sample from schools in the upper quartile and the lower quartile of socioeconomic rankings for suburban communities.

Thirty-seven principals (19 from schools in the upper quartile, 18 from schools in the lower quartile) participated in the preliminary phase of the research. Preliminary identification of the principals was accomplished through the use of index scores on Halpin's Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, which was administered to the full-time staffs in each school. There was a 96.7 per cent response to the questionnaire from the 755 teachers to whom it was administered.

From the original sample, 20 principals who exhibited extreme scores on the preliminary instrument were selected for participation in the subsequent phases of the study. Of this sample 13 were from schools in the upper quartile and seven from schools in the lower quartile.

Instrumentation

Three instruments were used to gather information about the sample subjects, (1) the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ), (2) the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientations-Behavior (FIRO-B), which was completed by the principals themselves, and (3) the Background Information Form, which was completed by the researcher, who administered this questionnaire by means of personal interviews.

(1) The LBDQ is the instrument which was developed by the Halpin Study to measure two major components of leadership behavior: "Initiating Structure" and "Consideration." It is composed of a series of short, descriptive statements of the ways in which leaders may behave. The LBDQ was completed by all of the full-time teachers in the principal's school.

(2) The FIRO-B is the instrument which was developed by William B. Schutz to obtain information about the three basic interpersonal needs of subjects. The FIRO-B consists of six sub-scales of nine items each. By means of this instrument we obtained a measure of the degree to which this sample of principals felt a need to relate to others along the six dimensions of Inclusion Expressed, Inclusion Wanted, Control Expressed, Control Wanted, Affection Expressed, and Affection Wanted.

(3) The Background Information Form, an instrument developed by the researcher, was used to secure information concerning the possible relationships between language and other variables. This instrument consisted of fifty questions related to three phases of the subjects' background: personal history factors, educational background factors, and professional experience factors. In addition to the usual questions concerning information related to educational achievement and socioeconomic factors, items relating to certain environmental factors in home and community were included.

While the first instrument (LBDQ) was used in the preliminary phase of the research as a basis for selecting subjects for participation in subsequent phases of the research, the FIRO-B and Background Information Form were administered to the 20 principals participating in all phases of the study.

Nature of the Corpus of Language Material

This study is based upon a corpus of spontaneous conversations which principals had with their teachers. The following controls were utilized in gathering the verbal sample:

(1) The subjects' suggestions were utilized in arriving at a conversational topic which arises in each school, namely pupil promotions and retentions.

(2) Principals held conversations in their office, unless this was contrary to the usual procedure used for individual teacher conferences.

(3) To avoid introducing an element of artificiality, principals were requested to tape the conversations as they would ordinarily occur in the natural sequence of events.

(4) Participants were given no cues concerning the use to which the material was going to be put. Therefore, it may be assumed that speakers had no notion of how to distort their natural way of talking in order to be more acceptable.

(5) The tape recorder was used with the full knowledge of all speakers.

(6) The researcher was not in the school building during the times conversations were being recorded.

In order to obtain an adequate sample of his speech, each principal was asked to submit a minimum of five taped conversations, each held with a different teacher. Three five-minute random segments of conversation, each held with a different teacher, were transcribed for each of the 20 principals. These three conversations were processed as three separate units, each representing a basic data unit for a total of sixty basic data units. Index scores (three sets for each principal) representing percentages of use by principals of the entry words from the 27 language categories were utilized as input for the statistical programs.

The total of 60 conversations or subsets of verbal data which were collected represented three five-minute segments of conversation for each principal, or a total of 55,569 spoken words used in 4,203 statements. The following figures give some idea of the richness of the verbal data:

An average of 70 sentences per conversation.
An average of 210 sentences per subject.

An average of 926 total words per conversation.
An average of 2,778 total words per subject.

Statistical Analysis

Two types of statistical analysis were performed, namely cluster analysis, and analysis of variance (MESA 97 program). Cluster analysis was applied in two instances. First, subjects were clustered according to their similarity of usage of the 27 language categories, the 20 subjects being clustered by their percentage scores on the language variables taken across the three five-minute samples. Second, subjects were clustered according to their similarity on 28 personal background history variables collected by means of the Background Information Form.

Analyses of variance were performed on the basis of percentage scores on language categories and scores obtained on the nonverbal instruments, Halpin's LBDQ and Schutz' FIRO-B.

The Retrieval Program

The analysis of variance program was effective in determining which language categories were significant discriminators of the speech patterns of subgroups of principals. The retrieval program was used to identify sentences on the basis of discriminating categories. The retrieved sentences were grouped together to form composite dialogues reflective of the total speech output of the sample. These dialogues were utilized in in-depth verbal analysis.

Findings: Preliminary Phase of the Research

Certain results may be reported concerning the initial phase of this research, which involved administering Halpin's LBDQ to the staff of our initial sample of 37 principals.

The medians of scores on Initiating Structure and Consideration were used in analyzing this data, with principals stratified by socioeconomic class. Differences between the leadership styles of principals in high and low socioeconomic level communities may be characterized in this way:

(1) Individual scores in general tend to be slightly higher on Consideration than on Initiating Structure. Only five of the 37 principals received higher scores on Initiating Structure (two from the high socioeconomic stratum, three from the low socioeconomic stratum).

(2) Seventy per cent of the principals from schools in low socioeconomic level communities received low scores on Consideration. Fifty per cent of the principals from these communities received low scores on both Initiating Structure and Consideration, as opposed to only 21 per cent of the principals from schools in high socioeconomic level communities.

(3) A tendency toward higher Consideration scores seems to be the pattern of high socioeconomic level community principals. Of the high socioeconomic level principals, 68 per cent tend to exhibit behavior indicative of High Consideration. While 32 per cent of the high socioeconomic level community principals are perceived as being high in Consideration and low in Initiating Structure, no principal from the low socioeconomic level community is so perceived.

(4) While 11 per cent of the high socioeconomic community principals are perceived as being high in Initiating Structure and low in Consideration, 22 per cent of the low socioeconomic community principals are so perceived.

(5) Thirty-seven per cent of the high socioeconomic level community principals are perceived as being high in both Initiating Structure and Consideration, as compared with 28 per cent of the low socioeconomic level community principals.

(6) Using the χ^2 test it was found that the difference in number of High Consideration principals in the high socioeconomic level communities (13) as compared with those in the low socioeconomic sample (five) is greater than can be attributed to chance. This is a significant difference at the .015 level.

These findings tend to indicate that principals of schools in high socioeconomic level communities differ from principals of schools in low socioeconomic level communities in leadership style. Those from schools in high socioeconomic level communities tend to show greater Consideration scores on the LBDQ instrument than those from schools in low socioeconomic level communities.

Findings: Subsequent Phases of the Research

The FIRO-B Results

For our sample of principals the highest scores were received on Inclusion Expressed ($\bar{X} = 5.0$), Control Expressed ($\bar{X} = 4.6$), and Affection Wanted ($\bar{X} = 4.3$). The lowest score was received on Inclusion Wanted ($\bar{X} = 1.5$), while scores for Control Wanted ($\bar{X} = 3.7$) and Affection Expressed ($\bar{X} = 3.5$) were similar to each other.

Results of Cluster Analysis One (Subjects Grouped According to Usage of Language Categories

When the cluster analysis program was applied to the three profiles of 20 subjects measured across the 27 language categories, the subjects tended to fall into two seemingly different groups, partitioning themselves more or less into two groups whose members apparently speak differently from each other, forming Linguistic Pattern I (nine subjects) and Linguistic Pattern II (11 subjects). We note the following results of this analysis:

(1) A majority of the principals from areas of low socioeconomic level cluster into Linguistic Pattern II, while Linquistic Pattern I is primarily composed of principals from areas of high socioeconomic level.

(2) Principals from the low socioeconomic communities form a more homogeneous group since only one of their members clusters with the principals of the high socioeconomic level. While 62 per cent of the high socioeconomic level community principals fall into Linguistic Pattern I, 86 per cent of the low socioeconomic area principals group into Linguistic Pattern II.

These findings tend to reinforce our earlier conclusion (based on a nonverbal instrument, the LBDQ) that there are differences among administrators which suggest a socioeconomic-geographic dichotomy. These data suggest a linkage of socioeconomic variables with language data, indicating that the differences as set forth in the report of LBDQ findings may extend to speech patterns.

Results of Cluster Analysis Two (Subjects Grouped According to Personal History Variables)

Only 28 of the items in the Background Information Form yielded enough information to be a factor in the variability among subjects. When the cluster analysis program was applied to these 28 personal history variables, two groups emerged, with subjects falling into Group 1 resembling each other more closely than subjects falling into Group 2. There were 10 subjects in each of the two groups.

Personal Background Variables.--Differences between the two groups consisted mainly of age, father's occupation, and travel abroad. The average age of principals in Group 1 is 45, while the average age of principals in Group 2 is 34. While it is quite clear that the age variable explains a good deal of the difference between these two samples, a process of selection has taken place in which the upward mobile individuals in the older age bracket have been lost to our sample, often no doubt through promotion. We are therefore studying two populations who have fared quite differently. The older principals from the schools located in communities of low socioeconomic level are those who have been passed by in numerous selections, while the principals from schools located in communities of high socioeconomic level are a more successful cadre of individuals.

Among the fathers of Group 1 principals there are 30 per cent unskilled workers as opposed to no unskilled workers among the fathers of Group 2 principals. Thirty per cent of the fathers of Group 1 principals are professionals as opposed to 20 per cent of the fathers of Group 2 principals.

Forty per cent of the Group 1 principals traveled abroad in order to fulfill military service obligations, primarily during World War II, while 30 per cent of the Group 2 principals traveled abroad by choice for year-long assignments as teachers or principals.

Educational Background Variables.--While twice as many Group 1 principals have earned 16-36 hours beyond the master's degree, the Group 2 principals, as expected, have had the more recent educational experience. The pattern for both groups is to obtain the master's degree in administration. Ten per cent of the principals in each group have earned the doctorate (D.Ed.) in educational administration. Ninety per cent of the Group 1 principals received their best grades in the Social Sciences or Education, as opposed to 40 per cent of the Group 2 principals. Another 40 per cent of the Group 2 principals earned their best marks in the Physical Sciences.

Professional Background Variables.--Both groups of principals have held five different educational posts, even though the Group 1 principals have twice as many years of experience in the profession. Group 1 principals have spent approximately 42 per cent of their professional lives in the principalship while Group 2 principals have already spend 32 per cent of their professional lives in the principalship. The Group 2 principals therefore are a more mobile group.

Twice as many of these Group 2 principals thought that their own success was attributable to getting along with superordinates as well as to showing Consideration to other organization members.

Sixty per cent of the Group 1 (those in high socioeconomic level communities) principals had closed off any superintendency aspirations as opposed to 10 per cent of the Group 2 principals. Only 10 per cent of the Group 1 principals indicated any abiding aspirations for the post of superintendent as opposed to 40 per cent of the Group 2 principals. While 30 per cent of the Group 1 principals were tentative concerning such aspirations, 50 per cent of the Group 2 principals would consider the post if an opportunity presented itself. The reason most often cited by the principalship-bound principals is that the superintendency role cuts one off too much from day-to-day contact with teachers and pupils.

While we had anticipated finding some discriminating variables in our questionnaire which would have related differences in speech to obvious sociocultural and socioeconomic differences among the personal backgrounds of the two groups of principals, we have encountered in this analysis suggestions that we may have to look toward differences outside of the men in order to answer our questions concerning differences in speech patterns.

We found that 69 per cent of the subjects from high socioeconomic level communities fall into Personal History Variable Group 1 and that 85 per cent of the principals from low socioeconomic level communities fall into Personal History Variable Group 2. This cluster analysis suggests that subjects can be partitioned into two groups, reflecting personal history distinctions, with the majority of one group being principals of high socioeconomic level schools and the majority of the other being principals of low socioeconomic level schools.

Juxtaposition of Linguistic Pattern Membership with Personal History Variable Group Membership

Such a comparison showed that, in general, subjects (70 per cent) tend to employ Linguistic Pattern I in speaking if their personal history variables characterize them as Group 1 members and that they (80 per cent) tend to employ Linguistic Pattern II in speaking if they are characterized by Group 2 personal history variables.

Juxtaposition of Linguistic Pattern with Socioeconomic Level of School Community

A large percentage of subjects speaking Linguistic Pattern I may be found in schools of high socioeconomic level while more than half of the principals speaking Linguistic Pattern II may be found in schools of low socioeconomic level.

Juxtaposition of Personal History Variable Group Membership with Socioeconomic Level of School Community

While subjects falling into Personal History Variable Group 1 (90 per cent) tend to be principals of schools located in high socioeconomic level areas, those in Personal History Variable Group 2 (60 per cent) tend to be principals of schools located in low socioeconomic areas.

Prediction from Linguistic Pattern Membership and Personal History Variable Group Membership to Socioeconomic Level of School Community

Seven subjects hold membership in Linguistic Pattern I and Personal History Variable Group 1 (I, 1 combination), while eight hold membership in Linguistic Pattern II and Personal History Variable Group 2 (II, 2 combination). In twelve of these 15 cases it was possible to correctly predict whether the subject's school was located in a high or a low socioeconomic level community, with seven I, 1 subjects being found in a high socioeconomic level community and five II, 2 subjects being found in a low socioeconomic level community. The three types of exceptions were assigned to one of three maverick groups which resulted from our analysis of the three variables of Linguistic Pattern, Personal History Variables, and Socioeconomic Level of School Community:

(1) The Misplaced Maverick (Subjects 6, 7, and 15), who shares the personal background variables of Group 2 and speaks Linguistic Pattern II but who is located in an affluent type school district.

(2) The Linguistically Adaptable Maverick (Subjects 5 and 11), who speaks the appropriate pattern for the location in which he finds himself but who has disparate personal background variables.

(3) The Inconsistent Maverick (Subjects 13, 14, and 19), who shares the personal background variables typical of the principals in his type of district but who uses the opposite linguistic pattern in his speech.

Within the framework of the present study it was possible only to explain some of the questions presented by the Linguistically Adaptable Maverick. The main discrepancies stem from differences related to age, superintendency aspirations, travel experience, and recency of graduate study. Explanations concerning the other two maverick types can only be made on the basis of their verbal output, and theoretical bases which delimit the verbal analysis in this study do not encompass these exceptions. Such explanations await further research.

Results of the Analysis of Variance Program

The MESA 97 program was applied to the data on Initiating Structure and Consideration and the subjects' percentage scores on the 27 language categories. The three samples of verbal behavior, representing three dyadic interactional settings were considered as distinct observations, rather than as repeated observations of the same phenomenon. This procedure led to biased F-ratios which however, would not reduce the level of significance of the variables.[1]

Both the Initiating Structure and Consideration dimensions yielded statistically significant results. In addition to the two overall tests of hypothesis which yielded significant results, 10 of the language categories were significant discriminators of principals.

Initiating Structure Dimension.--Principals perceived by their teachers as being high in Initiating Structure are discriminated by their language from those perceived by their teachers as being low in Initiating Structure. Principals perceived as being low in Initiating Structure speak more like each other than do principals perceived as being high in Initiating Structure. Two discriminating language categories, ATTEMPT and SELF, are highly significant along this dimension.

The square roots of means indicate that when compared with Low Initiating Structure principals, High Initiating Structure principals use more words from the ATTEMPT category. However, according to the square roots of the means for the SELF category they use fewer references to the personal self than do the Low Initiating Structure principals. The

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[1] A subsequent reanalysis of the 60 speech samples of the 20 administrators using the nested or hierarchical model (See K. A. Brownlee, Statistical Theory and Methodology, New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1965, pp. 482-89 and 530-43) confirmed the results of the previous analysis for almost all of the variables. Four language categories out of the 54 which were checked were added to the list of significant variables when the nested model was substituted for the original analysis. There were no deletions. The four additional categories which proved to be significant discriminators along the Initiating Structure dimension were UNDERSTATE, SIGN-STRONG, WORK, and AROUSAL. No additional categories proved to be significant along the Consideration dimension.

ATTEMPT category is the only one in the entire analysis for which the High Initiating Structure principals have a higher rate of usage. Both ATTEMPT and SELF are concerned with goal-oriented activities.

The Consideration Dimension.--Principals perceived by their teachers as being high in Consideration are discriminated by their language from those perceived by their teachers as being low in Consideration. Eight categories discriminated the two subgroups of principals along this dimension. As indicated by the square roots of the means, the Low Consideration principals used more entry words from all of the eight discriminating categories than did the High Consideration principals.

Three of the categories which discriminate High Consideration principals from Low Consideration principals have to do with social contexts. These are ACADEMIC, ARTISTIC, and LEGAL. Two of the categories COMMUNICATE and GUIDE, have to do with the principals' operation in an interpersonal context. The remaining three discriminating categories, OUGHT, SIGN-STRONG, and HIGHER-STATUS, delineate a concern for structured authority relationships.

Results of Analysis of Variance Programs: FIRO-B Dimensions

When the MESA 97 program was applied to the data on the six FIRO-B dimensions (Inclusion Expressed and Wanted, Control Expressed and Wanted, and Affection Expressed and Wanted) and the subject's percentage scores on the 27 language categories, two of the six dimensions, the Inclusion Wanted dimension and the Control Wanted dimension, yielded significant results. The categories ACADEMIC and SELVES showed significance on both of these dimensions. A study of the square roots of the means indicated that in all instances the Low Inclusion Wanted principals and the Low

Control Wanted principals make more use of the entry words in the discriminating categories than do their counterparts.

The Inclusion Wanted Dimension.--Principals who scored high on Inclusion Wanted are discriminated by their language from those who scored low on Inclusion Wanted. Four language categories discriminated the two subgroups of principals along this dimension.

Two of the discriminating categories, ACADEMIC and ARTISTIC, are concerned with institutional contexts. The other two categories are SELVES, which is defined by all pronoun references to the inclusive self, and THOUGHT-FORM, which refers to units and styles of reasoning.

Control Wanted Dimension.--Principals who scored high on Control Wanted are discriminated by their language from those who scored low. Eight language categories discriminated the two subgroups of principals along this dimension.

Two of the discriminating categories concern themselves with institutional contexts, the ACADEMIC category and the LEGAL category. UNDERSTATE, one of the categories which discriminated on this dimension, is defined by adjectives and adverbs connoting doubt and uncertainty. Entry words from the UNDERSTATE category have the effect of toning down or modifying direct statements. Two of the discriminating categories are concerned with behavioral processes. These are COMMUNICATE and APPROACH. The SIGN-STRONG category is defined by words connoting strength or a capacity for action, while OUGHT words designate a moral imperative. SELVES is also a discriminating category on the Control Wanted dimension.

Application of the Retrieval Program

Whereas the statistical analyses determined the relative emphasis which subgroups of this sample of principals gave to different language categories, this was only the point of departure for the verbal analysis. It is important to consider the way in which principals actually used language in their conversations with teachers. The retrieval program, which searched the text for statements matching the researcher's specifications, produced for each significant language category a listing of all statements in which the specified category occurred. These were inspected by the researcher for a more accurate description of how each category is used in the data and for contextual verification.

The Composite Dialogues

Statements reflecting the total retrieved output were used in developing composite dialogues. These composite dialogues are organized by language category. The object of the verbal analysis is to search for meaningful differences between subunits of data as represented in the composite dialogues, and to see if these differences provide insights which are still consistent with nonverbal behavior patterns of the subjects.

In order to verify the statistical differences between subgroups which were discovered through the analysis of variance program and to interpret the meaning of these differences, we worked through the following questions:

(1) Which are the most frequently occuring category entry words?

(2) Which subgroups have more references to these entry words?

(3) Are any words uniquely the property of one subgroup?

(4) How are the words used?

In answering these questions, a careful analysis was made of contextual usage and level of meaning within statements. Certain consistent language patterns were revealed and we were able to substantiate the conclusions reached during the statistical phase of the study.

The researcher's analysis of the composite dialogues were subjected to the scrutiny of two language professors with background in linguistics as well as an elementary school principal. The results of the researcher's analyses were substantiated by this panel of judges on 95.5 per cent of all of the language categories retrieved. In the following section a brief summary is given for each of the discriminating categories. One or two representative statements are included as examples of the differences which were found.

Summary of Analysis of Composite Dialogues Developed from Categories Discriminating Along the Initiating Structure Dimension

ATTEMPT.--While Principals in both subgroups make extensive use of the word try, High Initiating Structure principals use try in a direct, specific context ("Try and do it that way.") The Low Initiating Structure principals use it in an attenuated context ("I think that if you try something like that, I think along those lines, you may get some success with John, . . . ").

SELF.--Principals perceived by their teachers as being high in Initiating Structure use SELF words (I, me) in a context of strength and forcefulness ("I want to know why you would reject it."). Their Low Initiating Structure counterparts use SELF words in a supportive context of cooperation and agreement ("I agree with you that the other would be top priority.").

Summary

Retrievals on the ATTEMPT and SELF categories indicate that in general, High Initiating Structure principals use language which is direct, specific, and forceful. These principals are capable of initiating structure in their school organizations without resorting to extensive use of the word *I*.

Principals perceived by their teachers as being low in Initiating Structure use fewer words from the ATTEMPT category and use them in an attenuated context. They use words from the SELF category in a context of support and cooperation.

Summary of Analysis of the Composite Dialogues Developed from Categories Discriminating Along the Consideration Dimension

ACADEMIC.--While Low Consideration principals make great use of words like *school* and *assignment*, High Consideration principals use a variety of entry words from the ACADEMIC category, such as *school*, *learning*, *understood*, and *student*. Low Consideration principals have a large number of references which are impersonal and indicative of a structured social situation, such as "academic checking," "prescribing a program," and "classifications" ("We're going to have this special *education* program in the township going and we'll have a place to put emotionally disturbed children and the culturally deprived, and all of the other classifications.")

High Consideration principals rarely use impersonal statements when talking about individual pupils. In their speech a concern for the individual child comes through, and they have a tendency to look at the pupil as a total person, with outside-of-school facets, not restricting their outlook to "the child as pupil" ("Sure, and this is why I thought it was so important that we did not keep this kid back, because, if you know, *academically,* you know, it could have been a good *case*, but I think it would have just wiped him out completely.").

COMMUNICATE.--Both subgroups of principals use a variety of entry words, such as say, talk, and suggest so that we must look to context for discriminating features of their speech. The language of the High Consideration principals is characterized by example of clarifying and supportive instances of COMMUNICATE words. The High Consideration principal reiterates or clarifies teacher-initiated statements ("Are you saying, . . ." , "Yes, that is what I was going to suggest.") The impression is conveyed of a man who cares about what his teachers have to say and who values and takes into consideration their feelings and opinions.

Low Consideration principals' utterances are terse and negative in context ("All right, he is educationally retarded. I'm not denying that, and I'm not talking about promoting him.") These principals have no examples of clarifying language.

ARTISTIC.--This category did not prove to be a clear discriminator of High and Low Consideration principals on any other basis than amount, for any comments which might be made an equally applicable to both subgroups. The usage of ARTISTIC words exemplifies a borrowing of words from artistic contexts when other non-artistic words could have been used. Some of the entry words used were creative, sensitive, and beautiful.

OUGHT.--Again, both subgroups of principals use the same entry word, should, in a great many retrievals. While both High and Low Consideration principals use OUGHT entry words in a context of concern for the child, the High Consideration principals look upon the child as a whole person, not just as a pupil having relationships to the school ("and then, what the teachers have been doing is, you will look to see which youngsters should not be in the same room with another one, whether it is by being related to them as a sibling or a cousin, or something like that, or because of their behavior, you know, when they are together.")

Low Consideration principals use OUGHT words in a narrower context, restricting their view to the pupil in his relationships to the school ("You say that whatever action that the student takes that you think corporal punishment should be used against, this should be done immediately?")

SIGN-STRONG.--High Consideration principals typically use words like strong, give, benefit, take, help, and able, while their counterparts say could, give, handle, competent, takes, and control. While both High and Low Consideration principals express a concern for the pupil, the High Consideration principals talk about children in a way that indicates an understanding of the child's needs ("This kid needs somebody strong."). The High Consideration principals convey a climate of concern for the child ("And when he's there he gives it, the discipline, but it's without love, and it has to be with the love, and this seems to be wrong.").

The use of SIGN-STRONG language by the Low Consideration principals conveys the impression of a more vigorous, more robust, declarative language ("Let the teacher give it to him." "He was in a boys' home, taken away from the mother.").

GUIDE.--Low Consideration principals make more abundant use of the word help while High Consideration principals utilize a varied group of GUIDE words, including help, handle, let, and reinforcing. High Consideration principals exhibit a concern for helping the child, with teacher and principal providing the guidance ("The problem is there and we're going to take action to try to eliminate the problem or to do something that would help the child to overcome the problem."). Low Consideration principals look for pupil guidance outside of the immediate situation, expecting help from parents or tutors, or a receiving school ("And as a consequence, the overall effect on Ronnie would be disastrous because he needs his mother's approval.").

LEGAL.--This category proved to be a sharp discriminator of High and Low Consideration principals although a relatively small number of examples were available for retrieval. While the Low Consideration principals rely heavily on terms which are truly "legal" in context (police, liability, witness, accused), the High Consideration principals make little use of this category and when they do, borrow legal terms for use in non-legal contexts. While the Low Consideration principals use legal words in legal contexts ("And I told her it was no t a beating, it was a spanking, and I had a witness, you know."), the High Consideration principals use these words at a different level of meaning ("Every year I see more evidence that there is very little we can do to change the basic personality.")

In the LEGAL retrievals it is often difficult to determine whether the concern is moral or legal. It is hard to draw the line between LEGAL words used in a legal context and LEGAL words used in a moral context.

HIGHER-STATUS.--Status mentions by High Consideration principals generally have to do with "within-school" status positions (teacher, psychologist) and if concerned with parents, it is usually in terms of father or mother individually, and in a context which is supportive of teachers ("Well, no, not as far as, we don't, as far as placing children, we seldom, if ever, will place or make a change on a parent request."). But if in the dialogue of Low Consideration principals, we note an absence of the context of teacher support, neigher do we find examples of Low Consideration principals not supporting their teachers. The Low Consideration principals make extensive use of the word parents in statements such as "So, right, I don't think there will be any problem with the parents."

Summary

In general, principals perceived by their teachers as being high in Consideration use language which shows a concern for helping the child, whom they view as a many-faceted person (ACADEMIC, OUGHT, SIGN-STRONG, GUIDE, and HIGHER-STATUS retrievals). These principals are supportive of their teachers and use much clarifying language (COMMUNICATE).

Principals perceived by their teachers as being low in Consideration have many references which are impersonal and indicative of a structured social situation. Their language is more direct (ACADEMIC and SIGN-STRONG retrievals). There are no instances of clarifying language in their retrievals on the COMMUNICATE category. They view the child as a person restricted to within-school relationships (OUGHT and HIGHER-STATUS retrievals).

While the ARTISTIC category did not prove to be good discriminator of principals' subgroups, the LEGAL category was a sharp delineator of High Consideration principals (who used legal terms in non-legal contexts) and Low Consideration principals (who used legal terms in truly legal contexts).

Summary of Analysis of Composite Dialogues Developed from Categories Discriminating along the Inclusion Wanted Dimension

SELVES.--While High Inclusion Wanted principals use SELVES entry words in an inclusive sense, drawing in the opinions of teachers ("Have you done any more thinking, what would you recommend as far as the way in which we talk to the parents?"), Low Inclusion Wanted principals convey the impression of directing teachers to do the work, rather than asking them to share in work, or simply asking them to do the work in question ("Why don't you, no just be sure that *we* get a written report to the next teacher.")

ARTISTIC.--Both High and Low Inclusion Wanted Principals speak in terms of *sensitive*, *creative*, *create*, and *perform*, words borrowed from an artistic context. In spite of the paucity of sentences available for retrieval on this category, some relevant information is revealed in a study of sentence meaning. High Inclusion Wanted principals make statements which are "inclusive" in their terms of reference (" . . . because if they are aware of that and sensitive to it, then they are going to take it into their planning.). Although the Low Inclusion Wanted composite dialogue does not contain instances of similar usage, there is some borrowing of terms from an artistic vocabulary ("I went into the room the other day, and he was outside the room and I *staged* an anger, and made him, I forced him, to do his arithmetic work, and he can do it.")

ACADEMIC.--Whereas both High and Low Inclusion Wanted principals make use of the words *school* and *teacher*, the High Inclusion Wanted principals also use *understood*, *learning*, *class*, and *teaching*. Their counterparts are characterized by the use of *student* and *problem*. Whereas there is a proliferation of statements utilizing a negative connotation in the speech of Low Inclusion Wanted principals ("But for a kid not to say a word, you know, for a whole year to a *teacher* is really odd." and "Look, there's no district policy and there never has been a *school* policy on it."), a positive note prevails in statements of High Inclusion Wanted principals. Where a negative construction is used, it is tempered by some positive aspect ("So the median I.Q. is 109, so he's not, you know, that far below the rest of the *class*.")

THOUGHT-FORM.--Entry words for this category are task-oriented words, reflective of an intellectual understanding of situations. While the Low Inclusion Wanted principals used the word problem quite heavily, the High Inclusion Wanted principals rarely use this word. Both used the word idea.

While Low Inclusion Wanted principals use THOUGHT-FORM words in more impersonal contexts, ("Let that be a teaching experience instead of a problem." and "I think, the fear of the unknown, of the child being sent to the office, not knowing what's going to happen, as opposed to knowing that the principal is going to administer corporal punishment, an automatic thing."), High Inclusion Wanted principals take into consideration the teachers to whom they are speaking ("I want to know why you would reject it.").

Summary

Retrievals along this dimension show the High Inclusion Wanted principals inviting teacher opinions and being more inclusive in their references (SELVES, ARTISTIC, and THOUGHT-FORM retrievals).

Low Inclusion Wanted principals utilize negative contexts (ACADEMIC) and impersonal frames of reference (THOUGHT-FORM).

Summary of Analysis of Composite Dialogues Developed from Categories Discriminating along the Control Wanted Dimension

ACADEMIC.--While High Control Wanted principals make abundant use of the word school, Low Control Wanted principals stress no particular word. The High Control Wanted principals make more mention of individual children than do their counterparts and they characteristically mention these children by name. ("But as far as a real concern about their ability to read, it would be more of a concern for Peter than for Michael, where Michael's concern is the more general."). The Low Control Wanted principals characteristically refer to pupils impersonally ("Was he one of the ones that you recommended for the psychologist to test?"). When a count was made of the number of times children were mentioned by name in statements retrieved on the ACADEMIC category, it was found that High Control Wanted principals mentioned children by name 28 times, as opposed to six times for the Low Control Wanted principals.

In addition, Low Control Wanted principals exhibit a pulling back, a defensiveness when talking about parents ("He isn't going to get his pick of teachers around here.") which is absent in the speech of their counterparts.

UNDERSTATE.--The two subgroups of principals separate quite easily on the UNDERSTATE category, with the High Control Wanted principals making noticeable use of the adjective little along with a modest use of words like seem, like, and something. The Low Control Wanted principals use a variety of UNDERSTATE words such as sort (of), some, something, and but.

As for the High Control Wanted principals, in eight of the 11 statements where the word little occurs, it is used in the diminutive form, in speaking of a child (". . . little Fiore . . ." ""he's such a cocky little guy." and "Craig is a dear little boy."). This suggests an affectionate, personal manner of talking about children.

The Low Control Wanted principals create the impression of a high degree of understatement in their use of more than one UNDERSTATE word per utterance. The resulting impression is one of vagueness, generality, and unclear communication ("That gets to be pretty messy, but that is a possibility." "I mean he does take and he does get involved in these little bitty fights somewhat.")

It has been suggested from the analysis of other kinds of data that high counts on the UNDERSTATE category indicate defensiveness, and excessive use of these words modifies otherwise simple, direct statements.[1]

LEGAL.--Statements retrieved under this category suggest usage in a moral as well as a legal context and it is difficult to separate the two. High Control Wanted principals make much mention of entry words responsible or responsibility ("Now this is my responsibility."), while Low Control Wanted principals use words associated directly with legal contexts, such as police and witness, and they use them in contexts directly reflective of legal concerns ("Did they report it to the police?").

Considering the communities where most Low Control Wanted principals are located, it is possible that their language reflects overriding community pressures rather than internal needs of the men.

COMMUNICATE.--High Control Wanted principals use a variety of COMMUNICATE verbs, including express, revealed, call, referred, tell, talk, and said. Low Control Wanted principals also use an array of verbs, but in their speech, say and tell are more common.

The speech of High Control Wanted principals is supportive of teachers, inviting assistance from teachers in making decisions ("So what you're saying . . . ," "Express the concern on Joshua.").

Low Control Wanted principals are specific and direct in pointing out courses of action to teachers ("They, the parents, are waiting for you to tell them something about their child, you know." and ". . . if you don't want any help, you're specifying this.").

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[1] Stone, et al. The General Inquirer, p. 302.

SIGN-STRONG.--A range of varying words from this category is utilized by both subgroups of principals. While both High Control Wanted principals and Low Control Wanted principals utilize take and keep, Low Control Wanted principals also use able, strong, and fighting. High Control Wanted principals use responsibility, capable, and give.

Both subgroups' composite dialogues contain statements where reference is made to parents. Whereas High Control Wanted principals are protective of their teachers ("I just didn't want the Schneiders to give the new person a hard time." the tone of Low Control Wanted principals is one of acquiescing to parents in an almost defensive manner (" . . . It's their child, and you know, why bother fighting it?" and " . . . he's not going to take his kid out."

OUGHT.--Both High Control Wanted and Low Control Wanted principals use the entry word should extensively so it is not possible to separate the two subgroups of principals on the basis of entry word choice. Whereas High Control Wanted primcipals exhibit more of a concern for individual children, this quality is not totally absent in the statements of the Low Control Wanted principals. A quality which comes through in the language of the Low Control Wanted principals is a certain impersonality which is due to structure-oriented references and impersonal references to children (" . . . structuring is the modus operandi that we should use in our schools." and "Yes, you must have some in your own mind, some standards."

APPROACH.--While High Control Wanted principals make almost exclusive use of the verb come and typically in a context of physical approach ("He doesn't come to school?"), Low Control Wanted principals use the verbs involve, give, come, and cooperating in a non-physical context of contributing, although this may be in a negative sense ("I know that he's not cooperating." and "But, then, that's giving in to his parents too.").

SELVES.--Both High and Low Control Wanted principals make equal use of the inclusive "we" which includes the teacher being addressed. On this category there is one distinguishing feature which is present in the speech of the Low Control Wanted principals. These principals betray a negativeness and helplessness in the face of what can be done to help pupils ("Of course, you know this is out of our domain.", "Because there isn't a whole lot that we can do to reach him, you know.", and "However, we do inherit children from other areas where there is little or nothing about them.").

Summary

High Control Wanted principals speak in terms of concern for individual children, mentioning them frequently by name and in an affectionate manner (ACADEMIC, UNDERSTATE, and OUGHT retrievals). They are supportive of teachers and invite their assistance in making decisions (COMMUNICATE). They are protective of their teachers (SIGN-STRONG). High Control Wanted principals use APPROACH category words in a context of physical approach.

Low Control Wanted principals create the impression of vagueness and generality (UNDERSTATE retrievals) and do not generally refer to children by name (ACADEMIC). They appear to be defensive in talking about parents (ACADEMIC and SIGN-STRONG retrievals).

These principals are more direct in their statements (COMMUNICATE) with a tone of impersonality prevailing in some of their retrievals (OUGHT). They exhibit a negativeness in their use of the SELVES category. These principals utilize APPROACH words in a non-plysical context of contributing. Perhaps due to the communities in which their schools are located these principals make use of LEGAL entry words in contexts which are truly legal.

The Residual List

Of the total of 55,569 words which formed the verbal base for this research, all but 5,730 words were identified in the language categories utilized in the research. These 5,730 words were relegated to the Residual List and labeled "work-spaces" which remained to be identified. Of the total remaining work-spaces 3,787 were filled by these words:

Word	Number of Times Used
Forms of the verb "to have"	1,211
This	746
Proper names of staff and pupils	539
Numerals spelled out	530
Like	142
Okay	115
Oh	104
Technical names of teaching materials, kits, and tests	72
Specific time references	68
Through	60
Specific place names	49
Quite	27
Hmm	25
Whatever	15
Without	13
Stuff	12
Mispelled words	5

The remaining 1,943 words are words specific to the school situation which were utilized by principals in this sample in interacting with teachers on their staffs. While 1,184 of these residual words had low counts of from one to four, the remaining 759 had counts ranging from five to 55. Although words with very low counts are not crucial to this analysis by virtue of their low frequency counts, they do represent additional words that potentially may be important to the refinements of an administrative dictionary.

Words having counts ranging from five to 55 were divided into two "super-categories," depending upon whether they were structure-oriented words or person-oriented words. There were six words amont these which are of special interest because they appear particularly relevant to principals in the school situation:

Word	Number of Times Used
child	55
classroom	33
schedule,-s,-ing	20
recommend	14
care	13
guidance	12

Between them these words took up 147 work spaces. Because of their relatively high frequency counts, they should be seriously considered for inclusion in a future administrative dictionary.

Conclusions

We wish to again emphasize that this study has been an exploratory one. We have attempted to discover whether a new methodology would be useful in helping to clarify present knowledge concerning possible relationships between the language usage of principals on the one hand, and teacher perceptions of principal behavior, and personality characteristics of principals on the other.

To the extent that our basic assumptions concerning language usage by this particular sample of principals have generally been upheld statistically, and also on the basis of our in-depth verbal analysis, we may say that the aims of this study have been achieved. We have succeeded in applying for the first time a methodology based on linguistic data which has produced insights useful to practitioners as well as to researchers in administration. Such usefulness has practical implications for those responsible for the selection, training, and placement of school administrators. It also has implications for questions concerning administration in any organizational setting. These points will be further discussed in the section which follows.

Implications

Our initial notion to make a study of the linguistic behavior of school principals was prompted by a lingering belief that language contains the key to many questions concerning interactions in the school situation. As was suggested in Chapter I, we were acting on thoughts stimulated by an increasing literature concerning the conjoining of language study with many other disciplines, such as sociolinguistics and psycholinguistics. Our notion was that modern content analysis techniques could provide a tool of great value to those concerned with the selection, training, and placement of administrators. Operating on the assumption that language is essential to the administrative task and is also a projection of the personality, we turned to language in our efforts to (1) obtain more insights concerning administrative performance, and (2) gain more insights concerning certain interpersonal needs through the study of principals' mode of linguistic expression.

Our hypotheses that there would be distinct differences in the kinds of words used by different subgroups of principals along the theoretical dimensions of Halpin and Schutz have been upheld. We have also found that there are systematic differences in the ways in which these words are used in their respective statements. For both dimensions of the

Halpin instrument, these differences have proved significant. For two of the six FIRO-B dimensions these differences have proved significant. For this sample of 20 principals we have found that our methodology has been useful in yielding linguistic differentiators and, therefore, in validating our conceptual framework.

Of course, we do not suggest generalizing far beyond our sample of 20. Several implications may be drawn from this limitation:

(1) Since our methodology has proved so useful in working with a relatively small sample, it suggests continuing research utilizing the methodology with a larger sample.

(2) Since it has proved useful to work with both the Halpin and Schutz theories, it suggests a replication study utilizing the same theories at a higher level of sophistication.

(3) It is suggested that further research utilizing the FIRO-B instrument as a discriminator of administrators do so on the basis of more scientific sampling procedures. This refinement would open up the possibility of the instrument being useful in providing statistically significant differences along the other four dimensions of the instrument.

(4) Since the differences which we have discovered in language usage follow the socioeconomic-geographic divisions we have used, we suggest that such criteria be refined and utilized again.

(5) The results of this study suggest that although the 27 language categories which were selected from the general purpose Harvard III Dictionary have proved useful, these categories might be modified to make the more reflective of administrators speaking in the school setting. Modifications of the language categories and the creation of new ones should utilize words from the Residual List which are reflective of the specific school administration situation. Before utilizing modified or newly created categories in subsequent inquiries into the verbal behavior of school administrators categories will have to be validated. Continued work in the development of useful language categories points to the evolution of a specialized administrative dictionary.

For the purposes of this study we have limited ourselves to two clear distinguishers, the LBDQ and the FIRO-B instruments. Each instrument has a distinct objective and operates at a different level. The Halpin instrument investigates administrators in practice and operates at the practical level of what an administrator actually does. The LBDQ delineates administrative types, according to teacher perceptions, but in order to see how administrative types measure out in the school situation, administrators must first be operating in schools.

The FIRO-B instrument, on the other hand, enables us to see what administrators are like even before they are operating in schools. The FIRO-B operates at the dynamic level of need fulfillment and tries to measure forces within the personality which motivate the administrator to act.

Implications for the selection, training, and placement of administrators are important. Since the only instruments we have now for observing administrative performance distinguish administrators only once they get into the job, we now have hopes that a linguistic instrument could be selective of administrators long before we get them into their administrative positions in schools. More fundamental than thinking first in terms of effective placement of administrators, we think instead in terms of selection of candidates for training programs in administration. It is possible that through language usage we can arrive at more effective training of administrators for specific school situations, as a guarantee that administrators will be able to speak the language which meets the communication needs of a specific kind of school situation.

The objective of this dissertation has not been to discover whether the LBDQ and FIRO-B results match one another, but rather to determine whether language patterns match either the LBDQ or FIRO-B results. This research has upheld the hypotheses that subgroups of principals, as determined by the Halpin and Schutz instruments, do have characteristic language patterns. Our verbal instrument correlates highly with the Halpin dimensions of Initiating Structure and Consideration and two of the FIRO-B (Inclusion Wanted and Control Wanted) dimensions.

The fact that we have found that word patterns can distinguish on both the LBDQ and FIRO-B instruments underlines our conviction that the study of administrative verbal behavior is indeed a viable approach to increased understanding of those responsible for administering our schools.

APPENDIX A

INSTRUMENT COMPLETED BY TEACHERS

LEADER BEHAVIOR DESCRIPTION QUESTIONNAIRE

Developed by staff members of
The Ohio State Leadership Studies

Name of Leader Being Described..............................

Name of Group Which He Leads..............................

Your Name..............................

On the following pages is a list of items that may be used to describe the behavior of your supervisor. Each item describes a specific kind of behavior, but does not ask you to judge whether the behavior is desirable or undesirable. This is not a test of ability. It simply asks you to describe, as accurately as you can, the behavior of your supervisor.

Note: The term, *"group,"* as employed in the following items, refers to a department, division, or other unit of organization which is supervised by the person being described.

The term *"members,"* refers to all the people in the unit of organization which is supervised by the person being described.

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College of Commerce and Administration
The Ohio State University
Columbus, Ohio

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DIRECTIONS:

a. READ each item carefully.

b. THINK about how frequently the leader engages in the behavior described by the item.

c. DECIDE whether he always, often, occasionally, seldom or never acts as described by the item.

d. DRAW A CIRCLE around one of the five letters following the item to show the answer you have selected.

A—Always
B—Often
C—Occasionally
D—Seldom
E—Never

1. He does personal favors for group members. A B C D E
2. He makes his attitudes clear to the group. A B C D E
3. He does little things to make it pleasant to be a member of the group. A B C D E
4. He tries out his new ideas with the group. A B C D E
5. He acts as the real leader of the group. A B C D E
6. He is easy to understand. A B C D E
7. He rules with an iron hand. A B C D E
8. He finds time to listen to group members. A B C D E
9. He criticizes poor work. A B C D E
10. He gives advance notice of changes. A B C D E
11. He speaks in a manner not to be questioned. A B C D E
12. He keeps to himself. A B C D E
13. He looks out for the personal welfare of individual group members. A B C D E
14. He assigns group members to particular tasks. A B C D E
15. He is the spokesman of the group. A B C D E
16. He schedules the work to be done. A B C D E
17. He maintains definite standards of performance. A B C D E
18. He refuses to explain his actions. A B C D E

19. He keeps the group informed. A B C D E

20. He acts without consulting the group. A B C D E

21. He backs up the members in their actions. A B C D E

22. He emphasizes the meeting of deadlines. A B C D E

23. He treats all group members as his equals. A B C D E

24. He encourages the use of uniform procedures. A B C D E

25. He gets what he asks for from his superiors. A B C D E

26. He is willing to make changes. A B C D E

27. He makes sure that his part in the organization is understood by group members. A B C D E

28. He is friendly and approachable. A B C D E

29. He asks that group members follow standard rules and regulations. A B C D E

30. He fails to take necessary action. A B C D E

31. He makes group members feel at ease when talking with them. A B C D E

32. He lets group members know what is expected of them. A B C D E

33. He speaks as the representative of the group. A B C D E

34. He puts suggestions made by the group into operation. A B C D E

35. He sees to it that group members are working up to capacity. A B C D E

36. He lets other people take away his leadership in the group. A B C D E

37. He gets his superiors to act for the welfare of the group members. A B C D E

38. He gets group approval in important matters before going ahead. A B C D E

39. He sees to it that the work of group members is coordinated. A B C D E

40. He keeps the group working together as a team. A B C D E

This instrument, the Schutz FIRO-B, a 54-item questionnaire designed to explore the typical ways in which principals interact with people, has been deleted from the document. Copyright for this instrument is held by Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc., 577 College Avenue, Palo Alto, California who withheld reproduction rights.

APPENDIX B

INSTRUMENT COMPLETED BY PRINCIPALS

APPENDIX C

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE ADMINISTERED TO PRINCIPALS

BACKGROUND INFORMATION FORM

Statement of Purpose: The information which is being requested is to be used for research purposes. We are interested in finding out if certain background factors are helpful in achieving a better understanding of the verbal behavior of educational administrators.

Guarantee: No principal will be identified by name or school in any of the study reports.

Request: It is essential to have an accurate response to each of the questions. If a question is believed to be an invasion of your privacy, feel free to omit the item.

MAY WE THANK YOU FOR THE TIME AND CONSIDERATION WHICH WE ARE ASKING YOU TO CONTRIBUTE TO THIS STUDY.

I. Personal History

1. Name____
(First) (Middle) (Last)

Age at last birthday__________

Current marital status: Single_____Married_____Divorced_____

Number of children__________

2. School Name & Address________________________________
County & School District Number__________________________

3. Birthplace: Please indicate the birthplace of yourself, your spouse, and your parents.

	Town or City	State or Region
You	____________________	____________________
Spouse	____________________	____________________
Mother	____________________	____________________
Father	____________________	____________________

4. Between the ages of 5 and 18, where were you living?

_____a. In a rural area
_____b. In a small town (less than 10,000 people) that was not a suburb
_____c. In a medium-size city (10,000 to 100,000 people)
_____d. In a residential suburb of a medium-size city
_____e. In an industrial suburb of a medium-size city
_____f. Inside a large city (100,000 to 500,000 people)
_____g. In a residential suburb of a large city
_____h. In an industrial suburb of a large city
_____i. In a very large city (over 500,000 people)
_____j. In a residential suburb of a very large city
_____k. In an industrial suburb of a very large city

5. What size family do you come from? Please indicate.

Number of children__________
Number of brothers and/or sisters older than you__________

7. Who usually ate dinner with you when you were a child?

8. Who did most of the talking at the dinner table when you wer a child?

9. Did you speak any language other than English in your home when you were a child?

Yes_______ No_______
If yes, which language?____________

10. What were your favorite recreation pastimes as a child?

11. What are some of the activities which your family engaged in together when you were a child?

    Who initiated and planned these activities?

12. Did anyone ever read books to you when you were a child?

    Yes_____ No_____ Who?_______________________________________

    How regularly did she (he, they) read to you?

    How old were you when she (he, they) started reading to you?

    For how many years did this practice continue?

    Were you encouraged to read to parents or others?

13. Did you have a library card as a child? Yes_____ No_____

    What types of books did you read most?

14. Do you remember discussing your readings with anyone?

    Yes_____ No_____
    If yes, with whom?_______________________________________

15. Who was the one who influenced you most to become an educator?

16. Of all the persons with whom you have been in contact, who do you think had the most influence on you in terms of your development in the area of verbal expression and language usage?

    Were any special efforts made to increase your vocabulary and improve your language usage?

17. Please indicate your travel experience, identifying number of trips and duration of each trip.

As a Child	As an Adult (Please indicate if armed forces, educational, etc.
Regional U.S. (New England, etc.)	
Canada	
Mexico	
Europe	
Asia	
Africa	
South America	
Australia	
Other	

18. What is the highest grade in school completed by the following?

	Your Spouse	Your Father	Your Mother
Less than eighth grade..................	______	______	______
Some high school........................	______	______	______
High school graduate....................	______	______	______
Some college............................	______	______	______
College graduate (bachelor's)...........	______	______	______
Some graduate school....................	______	______	______
Master's degree.........................	______	______	______
Some graduate work beyond master's......	______	______	______
Doctorate - Ph.D........................	______	______	______
- Ed.D..................................	______	______	______
- M.D...................................	______	______	______
Other professional degree (Please specify)	______	______	______

19. If your spouse received a degree, please indicate name of institution.

20. What was your father's main occupation or profession at the time you graduated from high school? (Check one or more.)

_____a. Unskilled or semi-skilled worker
_____b. Skilled worker, craftsman
_____c. Policeman, fireman, or mailman
_____d. Clerical worker
_____e. Salesman or factory representative
_____f. Farm owner without paid help
_____g. Farm owner or manager with paid help
_____h. Salesman, foreman
_____i. Middle official of a large business
_____j. Major executive of a large business
_____k. Proprietor of a small business
_____l. Proprietor of a large business
_____m. Professional (Please specify; e.g., M.D., clergyman, school teacher) _______________________________
_____n. Other (Please specify)_______________________________

21. Mother's occupation (if other than housewife)

____

II. Educational History

1. What type of secondary school did you attend?

_____ Private (non-religious)
_____ Private (religious)
_____ Public
Name and location of school from which you graduated __________

____

2. From which undergraduate college did you receive your degree?

Name ____________________ Minor ____________________

Location ____________________ Major ____________________

3. What is the highest educational level that you have attained?
_____a. Bachelor's degree
_____b. Master's degree
_____c. Master's plus up to 15 hours
_____d. Master's plus from 16 to 36 hours
_____e. Doctor's degree (Indicate if Ph.D. or D.Ed.)
_____f. Professional or specialist diploma (sixth year)
_____g. Courses beyond the Doctor's degree
_____h. If you are currently a candidate for a degree, please indicate the degree.
_____i. Other _______________________________

4. At what institution did you attain this level ? ______________
____

5. Are you a member of any national honorary society, such as Phi Beta Kappa?

   Yes _____ No _____ If yes, please specify: ______________

6. During what year did you last earn college or university credit?
____

7. If you have a degree in educational administration, please indicate whether it is Master's, D. Ed., or Ph.D., and the institution from which you received this degree.

   Degree __________________ Institution ____________________

8. What other on- or off-the-job training in educational administration have you had?

9. Please answer the following questions concerning your school work in elementary school, high school, and college.

   a. Academic work

      In what areas did you make your best grades?

Elementary	Secondary	College
(Subject Area)	(Subject Area)	(Subject Area)

   b. Extra-curricular activities

      In what kinds of extra-curricular activities did you generally participate? Please indicate level, type, and status as an officer, if any.

Elementary	Secondary	College
(Activity, grade level)		
Officer ____	Officer ____	Officer ____

c. Special work in language, e.g. foreign language, word origins classes, etc. Was foreign language a rquired subject or an optional subject? Please indicate which language (or related courses) you studied and levels for each.

	Required	Optional
Elementary (Grade Level)		
Secondary (Grade Level)		
College (Grade Level)		

III. Professional History

1. To which professional (educational organizations) do you belong?

2. Are you a member of any associations for administrators, as a distinct group among educators?

_____a. No
_____b. Yes, as an officer
_____c. Yes, as an active worker
_____d. Yes, as a member but not as an active worker

3. Apart from those required by your work, approximately how many meetings and conferences concerning school administration have you attended during the past year?

At a university ______________________________

With superintendents and principals ______________________

With community personnel ____________________________

4. Please help me to complete the following table so as to indicate your direct experience as an educator.

Years	School	District	City and State	Grade Level	As Tchr.	As Prin.	Other Spec.
First Position							
Second Position							
Third Position							
Fourth Position							
Fifth Position							
Sixth Position							
Seventh Position							
Eighth Position							

5. What is the average number of hours per week which you spend on your job?

____a. 35-40 hours
____b. 40-45 hours
____c. 45-50 hours
____d. 50-55 hours
____e. 55-60 hours
____f. More than 60 hours

6. What will be the total annual salary that you receive from this school system this year?

____a. Below $9,000
____b. $9,000 to $10,999
____c. $11,000 to $12,999
____d. $13,000 to $14,999
____e. $15,000 to $16,999
____f. $17,000 to $18,999
____g. $19,000 or more

7. What is the total number of pupils in your school?

____

8. Please rank in order (1, 2, 3) the three most prevalent occupational groups among your students' parents

____a. Unskilled or semi-skilled workers
____b. Skilled workers, craftsmen
____c. Policemen, firemen or mailmen
____d. Clerical workers
____e. Salesmen or factory representatives
____f. Farm owners without paid help
____g. Farm owners or managers with paid help
____h. Salesmen, Foremen
____i. Lower officials of small businesses
____j. Major executives of large businesses
____k. Proprietors of small businesses
____l. Proprietors of large businesses
____m. Professionals; e.g., physicians, clergymen, school teachers
____n. Others (Please specify)______________________________

9. The following table requests information related to the teachers on your staff.

	Inexperienced (1st year teachers)	Experienced Teachers	First Year Your School	M	F
Number Full-time					
Number Part-time					

10. On the average, about how many conferences with individual teachers do you hold per week? ____________________

Of these, how many are held in your office?
____a. Most of them
____b. About half of them
____c. Only a few of them
____d. None of them

11. On the average, how many nights a week do you devote to community activities? ____________________

Please indicate the nature of these activities.

12. What is the occupation and educational level of your three closest friends in the community?

(1)

(2)

(3)

13. How much time do you usually devote (per week) to non-professional reading?

____a. A little
____b. A moderate amount
____c. Probably more than most other professional persons

14. When did you first think about being a school administrator? (Check one.)

____a. During the time I was in elementary school
____b. During the time I was in high school
____c. During my college and undergraduate years
____d. After graduation from college
    ____ While teaching
    ____ While in graduate school
    ____ While serving as an assistant principal or administrative aid
    ____ Other (Please specify.)____________________

15. Which of the following statements BEST describes the way you feel about a career in educational administration? (Check one)

____a. I'd rather teach but teaching doesn't pay as well.
____b. It's the only career which would really satisfy me.
____c. It's one of several careers I might find equally satisfying.
____d. It's not the most satisfying career I could find.
____e. It's a career I decided upon without consideration of whether it would be most satisfying.

16. What characteristic have you liked most in superintendents and principals under whom you have served? (Check one)

____a. Showing consideration for other members of the organization
____b. Maintaining clear channels of communication with personnel
____c. Structuring the organization to get the job done
____d. Implementing or following through with plans, requests, and activities
____e. Something else (Please specify.)________________________

17. From your past experience, what do you feel has been the most important for your success? (Check one.)

____a. Ability to get along with co-workers and/or subordinates
____b. Ability to get along with supervisors and/or central office staff
____c. Skill and experience
____d. Long hours of hard work
____e. Something else (Please specify.) ________________________

18. Suppose that you could go back in time and start college again; in view of your present knowledge, would you enter the field of education?

____a. Definitely yes
____b. Probably yes
____c. Undecided
____d. Probably no
____e. Definitely no

19. What single factor, more than any other, decided you upon a career in educational administration?

20. In terms of your accomplishments thus far, do you feel that you've been able to achieve the aspirations and plans you started with?

____a. Not quite

____b. Yes, definitely

____c. Yes, I've done even better

21. What would you hope to be doing ten years from now?

THANK YOU

APPENDIX D

LETTERS SENT TO PARTICIPATING PRINCIPALS

MIDWEST ADMINISTRATION CENTER

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
5835 KIMBARK AVENUE
CHICAGO • ILLINOIS 60637

January 8, 1968

- - -
- - -
- - -

Dear Mr. ______________:

This is to request your participation in a study of administrative behavior. Your school was selected by random sampling from among elementary schools in the _________ area. Subsequent to selection of schools, your superintendent gave us permission to contact you, and to ask if you are willing to participate.

It is expected that your cooperation would involve permitting the investigator one or two visits to your school. The first visit would be for the purpose of administering a questionnaire to your faculty. On the basis of past experience the time needed to complete the instrument is usually fifteen minutes.

A return visit will need to be made to approximately one-half of the schools cooperating in the original sample. If you school is among those selected for a second visit, the investigator will ask you to (1) complete a questionnaire, (2) assist her in completing a Background Information Form about you and your school, and (3) permit recording some conversations between you and your teachers. The first two items together should not require more than forty minutes. The last item will be arranged at your convenience. Miss Lena Lucietto, who is the investigator for this study, will be available at any time on the day that is mutually agreed upon.

Neither schools nor individuals will be identified by name in the study. Miss Lucietto will provide a summary of the results of the study to participating schools.

We would appreciate your assistance and we earnestly solicit your cooperation in our on-going program of research in educational administration. Miss Lucietto will contact you by phone to determine whether you are willing to participate, and if so, to select a suitable time for her to visit your school.

Yours sincerely,

J. Alan Thomas
Director

el

MIDWEST ADMINISTRATION CENTER

THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO
5835 KIMBARK AVENUE
CHICAGO · ILLINOIS 60637

February 10, 1968

- - -
- - -
- - -

Dear Mr. __________:

A recent letter invited your participation in a research project concerning administrative behavior. Your willingness to participate in the first phase of the project made it possible for Miss Lena Lucietto to administer the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire to members of your staff. The questionnaire, which was administered to thirty-eight cooperating schools in the ____________ area, has now been scored.

At this time we would like to invite your continued participation in what we at the Midwest Administration Center consider a very worthwhile study. During the second phase, Miss Lucietto will ask you to (1) complete a questionnaire, (2) assist her in completing a Background Information Form about you and your school, and (3) permit recording conversations between you and some of your teachers. The first two items together should require no more than forty minutes. The last item will be arranged at a time convenient for you.

We are grateful for your assistance and look forward to your continued participation. Miss Lucietto will contact you by phone to select a suitable time for her return visit to your school. Please be assured that we will continue to respect the confidentiality of all persons and schools.

Yours sincerely,

J. Alan Thomas
Director

APPENDIX E

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION OF LANGUAGE CATEGORIES

CRITERIA FOR SELECTION OF LANGUAGE CATEGORIES

Selection of language categories from the Harvard III Dictionary was done on the basis of two factors:

Theoretical

> All decisions regarding category choice were guided by theory. Since language categories are defined by their entry words, primary consideration in the selection of language categories was given to the relevance of entry word meanings to the frameworks of Halpin and Schutz.

Empirical

> (1) Word frequency and usage in the administrative journals likely to be read by school administrators.[1] Notations of titles were made by the researcher during visits to subjects' schools. These journals were visible either in principals' offices or teachers' social room. Mention of various journals was made during some principal-researcher interviews, so cues were picked up from this nonreactive source.
>
> (2) Word frequency and usage in principal-teacher conversations and in principal-researcher conversations during the researcher's visit to the subjects' schools.

An informal word count was made of words used in administrative journals and of words which principals use in speaking. These cues were used in screening entry words in the 83 categories of the Harvard III Dictionary. Eventually the categories to be used were narrowed down to 27.

---

[1] These journals included The Elementary School Principal, The Reading Teacher, The Grade Teacher, Today's Education, and The IEA Journal.

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